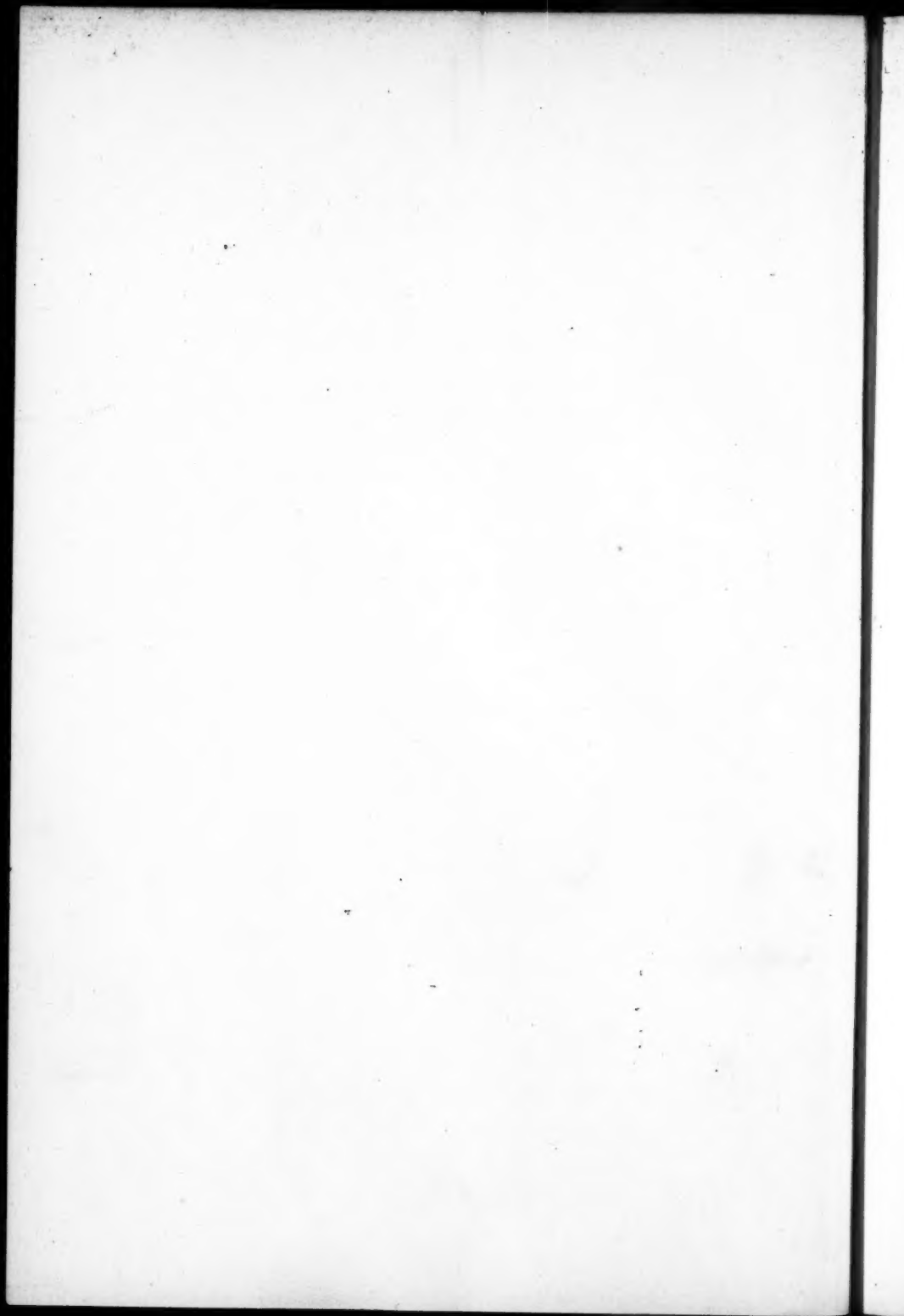


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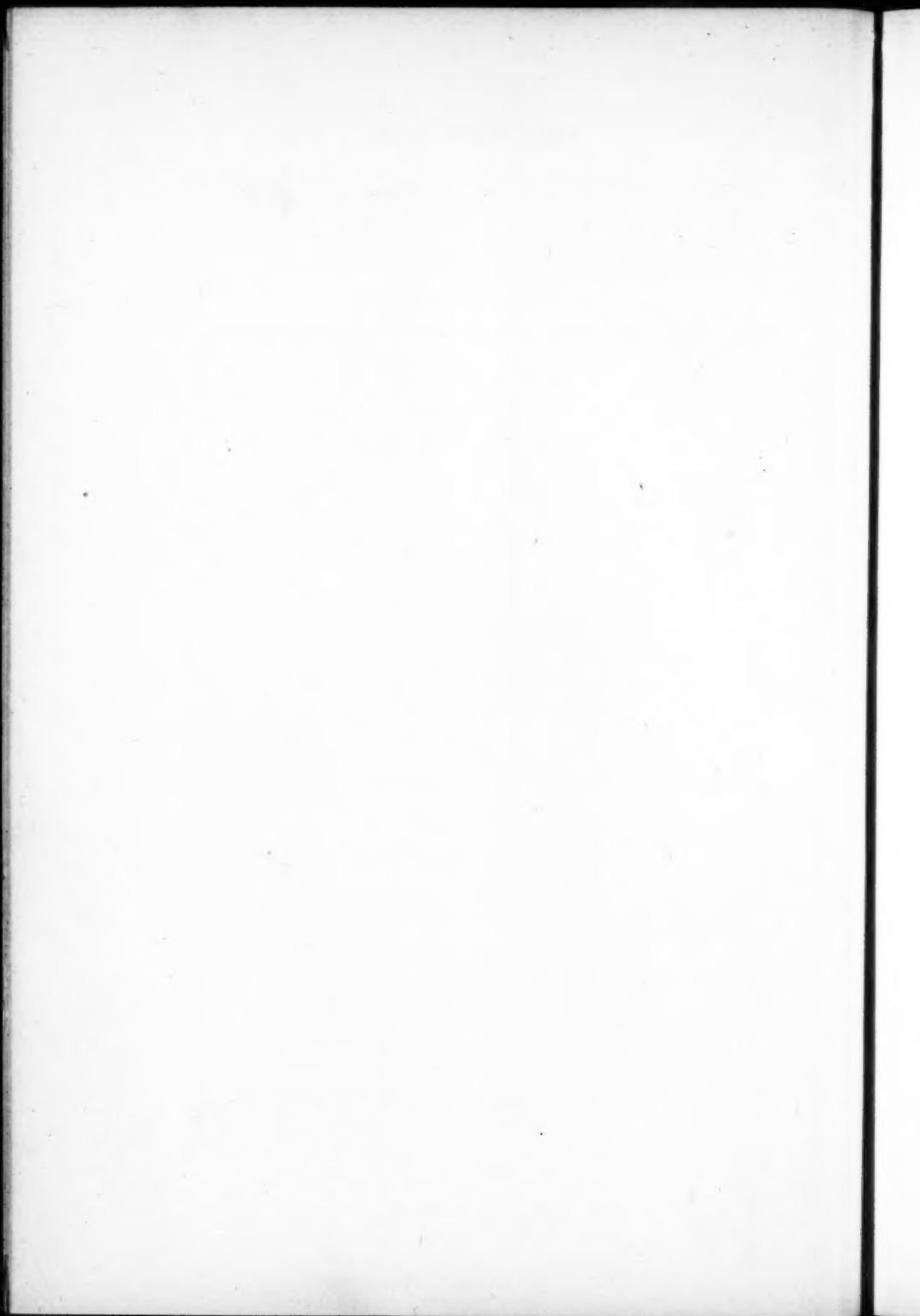
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PARENS IRATUS: HIS CAUSE AND CURE

WILLIAM McANDREW

Principal of the Washington Irving High School, New York City

I, too, in my day have read many books on education. They seem to me to have a good deal of what might appear to be pure science. Their formulae are calculated for a vacuum. They disregard the element of friction. This following trial will not content the educational expert. It would not have been thrust upon you but for the fact that on the editorial staff of this *Review* is one of my boys of twenty years ago, who asked for "something."

I bought a letter file in 1887. The habit has endured. I have just gone through a large pile of letters sent twenty-three years ago by fathers and mothers regarding their children then attending our Chicago high school. I seem to have been walking through a cemetery. Willie, Ollie, Danny, and all the affectionately labeled personalities are dead, some without successors. But many of them are transformed into men and women averaging forty years of age; some, constructors of huge buildings; some, shrewd and shifty accumulators of dollars; some, honest, steady, reliable citizens; some, dignified mothers of beautiful children; some, soilers of other homes than their own. Some few are making in life the sort of records which they made in school, but so many are at such a wide variance from what we rated them day by day as to incline me to abstain from

any eulogy of teachers' ratings, principals' judgments, or high schools' assistance of the survival of the fittest.

In these twenty-three years the style of letter written by parents to the schoolmaster doesn't seem to me to have undergone much change.

DEAR SIR [writes a city official, February 7, 1887]: I have no time to be bothered with your letters about the school work of my daughter Queenie. I have noted from month to month her low standing in latten but have not been disturbed by it believing she was in the hands of teachers competent to educate her. I believe she is as capable and industrious as the average pupil and believe that if the effort expended in writing letters criticizing her standing had been given to assisting her the result would have been different. It seems to me that your duties lie in the direction of ascertaining the causes of failure and in correcting them rather than in humiliating your pupils by *mailing* to the parent a *letter* of the character that I have been honored with.

On my desk is a letter of October 27, 1910, to a teacher in our present school:

DEAR MADAM: Please do not bother me with letters about the standing of my daughter. I and my ancestors before me have paid taxes in this city for seventy-five years and we send our children to be taught not to be complained about. If instead of writing letters you would explain your lessons to May and would teach them to her you would not need to waste postage.

I cannot complain that letters like these occur in large numbers. On the contrary, many of the cheeriest and most grateful sort are in the pack. But this essay is concerned with the stings of the schoolmaster's life which come from the angry pa.

The rudeness of parental letters depressed me so deeply in the early days that I became afraid that I was myself of such inferior personality as to draw this sort of missile fire. But once in the office of the eminent William C. Collar in his school in polite Boston he handed me a letter which had just come from the father of one of his boys. It made the worst notes I had received seem like invitations to tea. The contempt we get is for the profession, not for the professor.

The irate parent will be with us through this generation. The school has not yet acclimated him. Teachers dread an

interview with him as acutely as they did in 1887. They will let a child fail rather than write home. What causes *ira parentis*? Do you think our own incompetency a prominent factor?

During these twenty-three years there have been at one time and another about four hundred of us teachers working in various sized groups of which I have been one individual. I cannot count more than ten who seemed to have a clear and persistent idea of what we should bring children to be or who made use of our daily exercises in a way that resulted in a high-grade development of children. Of my college professors and of my previous teachers I can recall only four or five who seemed to know what I needed and how to get me to profit by it. During most of my time as a teacher I have been concerned with "covering the subject" in the cases of such of the children as responded. Upon the others I used a traditional process which was in no intelligent way different from my presentation of the subject to everybody. When I began to teach, twenty-five years ago, the habit of a principal or superintendent of thoroughly testing whether the children had been really taught or not was going out of fashion. In the schools with which I am familiar, now, such means of keeping up efficient teaching are less in use than then. In analyses of causes of failure of children made by school authorities I never see "poor teaching" mentioned as one, and yet I cannot get away from the suspicion that in every declaration of the angry father that "we ought to know how to make his boy succeed" there is enough of truth to make us chary of flatly contradicting him.

Everybody is teachable. Every soul has abilities. Some personalities run along at quarter-power and fail. What are we for if it be not to awaken the sluggish, the lazy, the impudent, the ones who do not like us? The others would succeed for anyone. If we propose ourselves as teachers, it means that we are of especial service to those who need a teacher. The complacent attitude of giving out the lessons and hearing them recited by such as study them brings us very little ahead. Isn't it true that a school administration should require a teacher

more and more to study the mental disease of the delinquent and to apply specific treatment for curing him?

It hardly helps matters to complain. There seems too much of the condemnatory in the letters sent home. Like begets like. The answer that comes back is abuse. The failing student claims that injustice has been done him. "He whispered once and ever since the teacher has failed him." If no teacher ever made so foolish a mistake as this, such charges would die out. But teachers do juggle their scholarship marks to punish for deportment. Teachers do "get down on children." There is not any kind of unfairness, pettiness, prejudice, or tyranny that school people are free from, any more than there is any other class of people that is wholly free from sin.

I have found that the positive rather than the negative kind of letter home does the most good. "Your daughter Myrtle is in my class and sometimes recites well. If I could get her to keep up to such a grade all the time she would pass. What can you suggest to help me?" "I am hoping and expecting to get Margaret through her Latin this term. I shall, if she does better. Could you see me and advise me about her?"

I don't get every teacher to take to notices like these. They tell me such letters are not severe enough and will do no good. Perhaps it's a matter of temperament. Encouragement increases my moderate powers. Failure and threat of failure paralyze them. In this I am in good company, as witness the letters and diaries of Washington Irving, Nathaniel Hawthorne, John Wesley, Andrew D. White, and 'Gene Wood.

When *pater iratus* calls and begins loud talk I send for his offspring and the teacher immediately. Or rather, I go after them myself, to prevent the parent's expression to me of complaints more fervid than the man ever will utter when the woman herself is present. On the way I say to the teacher alone: "Listen to him calmly. Let him talk himself out. If he begins to cross-question you, don't defend. Let me re-ask such questions as I think pertinent. Then you ask him what he thinks you ought to have done. Be very careful not to show any feeling of indignation or contempt, for we *are* public ser-

vants. He's one of the public: We can't teach him much, but we'll not give him any cause to criticize our manners."

This complaint of the manner is too powerful a weapon to put into the hands of the angry caller.

We had a counter across the office in the Pratt High School. Two very excited ladies pounced upon me once for not excusing their girls early. The tongue-storm lasted several minutes, blown across this counter by the women on one side against me leaning on the other. I won out on the dismissal question, but the ladies filed with the trustees a complaint of discourtesy because they had not been asked to sit down.

Do you ask yourself, Why dwell upon cases like this? Because, disagreeable as he is, the *parens iratus* is as much a feature of school management as courses of study are, and his amelioration is a problem as deeply involved in the progress of education as is the method of teaching indirect discourse.

I like to let the abusive caller vent his spleen upon a teacher for a few minutes and then say: "Do you know, I think I can see where all the trouble comes from."

Pater or *mater* usually turns to me then and waits.

"I think possibly," I say, "that this girl has used the same manner toward this lady as you are using toward her yourself."

This works in one of two ways: either as a sort of bludgeon between the eyes, stunning; or as a whip, exciting, to the point that the teacher and I for the rest of the interview are winners, because we are cool and the disturber is off his head. Then we acknowledge humbly our desire as public servants to do as we should, and papa, rather the worse for wearing himself out, is ours.

You see, the irate parent is likely to be so much in the wrong that it would not be right to give way to him. Because he has one or two boys at home he thinks his view is conclusive for an organization with hundreds of children. It is as if a woman who can run a chaotic dish would offer suggestions on the management of an army kitchen. But in every one of these tempestuous complainants I always find myself discovering the germs

of an honest resentment against some more or less vague injustice.

My pile of letters can't convince me that there were more objectors in those days. On the contrary, the measurements I have made of newspaper criticisms in 1887 as compared with 1910 show that discontent with schools is greater than it was. The *parentes irati* are not only more numerous but I think they are more intelligent than they were a quarter of a century ago. Sh! Let me whisper. I'm one of them. My own children are in the public elementary and high schools. The theories I have defended for years aren't working. There are twenty high schools in this town. One by one I have seen their principals send their own children to private schools. The grind in our public institutions is too heavy. Your Chicago papers cry "too much home work"; the New York journals do the same. I have an envelope full of suggestions for the management of high-school lessons so that the home-work abuse will disappear. None of them will work. The division of a child's time among four or seven teachers without excessive home work does not exist in any high school generally known to the educational world. In colleges the lack of reasonable regulation of outside study by professors has brought about the impossibility of excellence in scholarship and therefore the acceptance of mediocrity. I spent a day in a university last spring to try to locate the cause of the failure of a good boy I had sent there. The lad's classmates told me that no one could get all the lessons assigned. The dean confessed it. Occasion took me to Boston a little while later, where a Harvard student and an attendant upon the Institute of Technology told me the same.

The number of high-school children who do well is pitifully small. High-school management cannot improve this much. You cannot bring much pressure upon the teacher, for she can truthfully reply: "I conduct my recitations properly. I teach my fifty minutes a day, but I cannot go to the homes of every one of my children and there make them work properly." Don't you see this fatal weakness of our system? We have no teaching of the art of study before we permit the children by them-

selves to practice it. They teach themselves mind wandering, dozing in front of a book, time-wasting. Common consent places the responsibility for educating children upon the schools, but the schools rely too much upon undirected, unknown goings-on at home. I would not undertake to build your house if every day when I was gone someone less skilled than I fussed with the brick and mortar.

I'm ready, if I were permitted, to cut out home work altogether, and require no teacher or child to do anything outside of hours. Studying should be done at stated times in suitable rooms and supervised by study experts, so that it might be taught. To do this I should like a six-hour day, with suitable exercise upon the roof in the open air. Our workers, old and young, would leave their business cares at their place of business when they went home.

One circumstance that makes me believe that such a plan would decrease the number of irate parents is the record of certain classes in three high schools:

AVERAGE SUCCESSES PER HUNDRED STUDENTS IN THREE HIGH SCHOOLS

Subjects Requiring No Home Study.		Subjects Depending on Home Study	
Spelling	96	Algebra	69
Drawing	98	Geometry	58
Dressmaking	98	English	70
Music	97	French	63
Cooking	98	German	61
Bookbinding	100	Latin	69
Typewriting	93	Science	61
Penmanship	98	History	71

From the standpoint of the manager of a school, the cutting out of home work means simplicity and strength. It abolishes the present reliance upon scattered and irresponsible parents, whom you cannot supervise or require to perform their duties. It fixes upon a person paid for it the responsibility of getting work done. It reduces deficiency in scholarship in most instances to cases of discipline. Failure to work in such circumstances is disobedience. We know better how to deal with that than with

the distant and unseen affairs in the pupil's home. I believe this is one cure for *parens iratus*.

Another irritating cause is children's lack of interest in what we give them. In that Hyde Park high school twenty-five years ago we used parts of Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil, with a large amount of Latin grammar, as a medium of education. The natural interest of the various children in this was small. The grammar was to some extent directed toward facility in reading, but the most of the work in grammar was an end in itself. It is so yet, and it is not interesting. For myself, after years of trying it, I cannot get myself educated by uninteresting things. James Freeman Clarke and the members of his family got education out of Latin, but they did not do it our way. The grammar came only as needed, and was never needed in one-tenth of the amounts that we give. They read and read, and after that they read—Ovid, Varro, Catullus, Seneca, Marcus Aurelius, and Tacitus. We don't. We have not selected the most valuable Latin to read. Rome lasted twelve hundred years; you confine your study of her literature to less than a hundred. You say you have selected the best authors. You have not. There are a score of Latin pieces more interesting to me and more interesting to children than these three authors. There are hundreds of passages more inspiring, more thought-provoking, more informing, more potent in every quality that makes literature.

Your Latin scholarship is poorer today than it ever was. You can't get enthusiasm for it, because monotony kills enthusiasm. Near me is a Latin teacher who was at it in 1886. He is not teaching one line that he did not teach that year. You cannot make me believe that this sort of repetition can avoid stultifying a man's mind to the point of near imbecility. He corrects every translation to conformity with the style to which his ear has become formed. Every variation from this disturbs him. He cannot translate a new sentence with the facility of his second-year students. Not only is he pottering over the same passages term after term, but his neighbors are doing the same. The Latin classes in Los Angeles are doing the same work as those in Bangor. Where is the progress in this?

Something of the same uniformity and monotony is evident in French and German and English and mathematics and science. You let a teacher go over the same details year after year, when there are just as good materials for study in the same departments of knowledge. This is the sort of process that psychologists say produces stupidity.

What preventive of this result do we give high-school teachers? Nothing effective that I know of. Are stupidity, monotony, mechanical mental processes, laziness, indifference, absent from us? I do not find that we are singularly alert, adaptive, or progressive. We seem to me pretty much all alike, doing the same things in the same way and producing a larger amount of mediocrity every year. We confess that we are in a rut, and we let ourselves be characterized in medical advertisements as "the tired teachers."

We have the most perfect system and the poorest education that we ever had. The oftener we get together and agree upon a common way of doing things, the more frequently we have a report of a committee of ten or of thirteen or of fifteen, the more completely do the rest of us stop thinking and adopt a common plan. The analogy of business organization and of military formation has equipped us with a system that defeats the purpose with which teaching originally set out: the education of the powers of youth toward their realization. No man can educate youth to think unless he himself is a thinker. No man can be a thinker and spend the better part of his time doing the same thing over and over. The stultification of intelligence by employment in factories is not so serious to America as the deadening of teachers by uniformity.

We have made a fetish of a system, a course of study, a subject. The purpose of your Latin teacher is the Latin grammar and the selected passages. Accuracy, good English speech, industry, taste, or any specified kind of human efficiency, if it comes at all, is a by-product of your Latin-teaching process and not the aim your instructor intelligently works for. As a result of this centering upon the selected means instead of upon the end he often produces, by means of Latin, inaccuracy, wretched

English,¹ lazy use of translations, and distaste for literature. The purpose of the physics teacher is to cover the subject. He has specialized upon the subject, not upon any human ability which he regards it as his especial function to strengthen. The physics specialists have united; they have made uniform courses. They are repeating them year after year. They have turned one of the most fascinating of subjects into one cordially detested by thousands of girls and by hundreds of boys. Your whole high-school faculty is made up of persons centered upon subjects, not of experts in human nature or human growth at all. You cannot get a good position on a horse-farm because you have raised oats or studied the manufacture of harness. You can, however, get a place as an educator of youth if you have gone through a course of Latin, Greek, or chemistry.

Reasoning it out philosophically or comparing it empirically with any successful work in other industries, do you see any reason why our study-centered system of education should satisfy any larger number of parents than it does?

If you set out to cure human patients, or develop dumb animals, or raise flowers, would you not expect to make your aim certain living products brought to an improved state of advancement? Would you not hesitate to have it known that you were pursuing exactly the same course with each of your charges that every other physician or trainer or grower was following with his? There is only one circumstance in which I can see that you would be justified in all following the same course, and that would be if that course had always produced 100 per cent of successes.

But this high-school procedure doesn't do that at all. In this pile of letters of twenty-five years ago the names of those rated highest or even satisfactory in the educational processes we carried on in Hyde Park are those of persons who neither in 1890 nor in 1900 nor in 1910 were highest or even satisfactory in their service in the world. Among the children whom in 1886

¹ Did you ever read more continuously dreary English than the volumes of translations constituting any classical library? The men who produce these monstrosities are eminent linguistic scholars.

we drove from school discouraged by their failures in our arbitrary and uniform succession of daily exercises are those of men and women who today are more efficient individuals than many of those whom we ranked higher in algebra and Greek. The high-school procedure has not produced 100 per cent of success or 90 per cent of successes or 80 per cent of successes in any count of students I can make.

For that reason neither you nor I dare maintain that in the education of the children this day sent to us we can be justified in choosing as the means of educating them the same means that every other high school chooses. The very fact that it is just the same in Portland as in Kankakee condemns it. The fact that it has changed so little in twenty-five years condemns it more. Nor will the trooping after manual training or vocational education alleviate the trouble much, if we go trooping all together.

What we want, as I conceive it, is a centering of our attention on the children, and a resolution as to what abilities and what mental equipment we shall give them. Then we ought to be more free in every school to devise the daily exercises to bring about the growth we seek. As soon as that becomes the purpose of education, the fact that there are many roads to the same point will break up this retarding uniformity which now disgraces us. San Francisco's school system won't look any more like Boston's than San Francisco looks like Boston. Why should it?

Moreover we shall have a rule forbidding anyone to use the same authors or exercises more than three times running, just as we had a contract at college with our dining-hall preventing monotony of menus. This will do something to prevent us from becoming uninteresting and unfit persons to associate with curious-minded youth.

The freedom to select from all knowledge, not merely from the little field of present high-school studies, the exercises we ourselves want to use wherewith to train youth to thinking, feeling, and doing will of necessity produce a new type of teacher, a discoverer, an inventor, a progressor. Such a one, with his

purpose centered upon persons, not upon books, will necessarily grow into a more human personality. He is bound to come nearer satisfying his constituency than we do at present, because dissatisfaction with us now could scarcely be greater.

If you make public education a process of developing children according to their capabilities and needs, you will at least be able to answer the irate parent: "I'm doing the best I know how. You tell me a better way and I'll try it." At present you can't say any such thing. You have to answer: "Here's the course of study the authorities provide. It was never formed after a study of your boy and what he needs. It was handed down to us from an alien civilization, and you can take it or leave it, but you've got to pay for it anyhow."

This situation perpetuates discontent among parents.

I submit to you therefore that the *parens iratus* is a nuisance but a necessary one, and that he is not getting what he ought, and that the reformation of the service ought to spring from those who are giving it, that the work of the schools ought to be based upon children, not upon system, and that it ought never again to be permitted to attain to the uniformity it now discloses.

A STUDY OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADES

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The amount of time and labor expended by high-school teachers in grading their pupils from day to day, and in making reports at stated monthly, quarterly, or half-yearly intervals, is enormous. When there is added the very considerable labor performed by the principal, or in larger schools by clerks, in transferring these reports to the permanent records of the school, it is safe to say that the value of the results is in no way commensurate with the effort involved. In general, very little use has been made of these records except in determining promotions and in assigning a small number of honors and distinctions, regarding which there is not infrequently doubt as to whether the lot has fallen in the proper place. A very superficial study indicates the absence of any uniformity of standard in grading between the high school and the college, between different high schools, and within the same high school between different departments and even between different teachers in the same department.

The following study of grades in the University High School shows that the records of a school furnish material for scientific investigation of a large number of administrative problems, such as the relative effectiveness of different departments and teachers and the effect of mid-year promotions. Similar investigations of many other problems have been made or are in process of making. The conditions discovered and the results secured may be peculiar to this one school and may be of no general educational value. The study is presented as a suggestive type, showing that the records to be found in every school office may be used as a basis for a study of the validity of the school's procedure and for changes where such study

indicates that the methods employed are ineffective. Such a use of school records justifies the labor that has entered into their preparation.

This study extends over the years 1907-8 and 1908-9. The material here presented is taken chiefly from the latter year. The method of grading in the school makes 60 the passing mark. Grades are reported by teachers and recorded in multiples of 5 only. Grades below sixty are designated by the letter F, 60 and 65 by D, 70 and 75 by C, 80 and 85 by B, and 90 and 95 and a possible 100 by A.

1. *Normal distribution of grades.*—The percentages of pupils receiving each grade for the two years correspond very closely and may be taken as the normal distribution for the school. It should be kept in mind that this is not proposed as a norm for other schools, but for the purposes of this study is used as a norm for this school. The following table gives the number of grades recorded for each year, and, under the letters used to designate the five different grades, the percentages of pupils receiving each grade. Thus in 1907-8 11.4 per cent of all grades received by pupils were F; 23.3 per cent, D; 28 per cent, C; 27 per cent, B; and 10.3 per cent, A. This table is represented graphically in Fig. 1.

Year	No. of Grades	F	D	C	B	A
1907-8.....	6429	11.4	23.3	28.0	27.0	10.3
1908-9.....	7297	11.5	18.9	30.6	27.0	12.0
Average.....	6863	11.4	21.1	29.3	27.0	11.2

In explanation of this and the subsequent Figs. 2-12 it may be said that the vertical lines represent the five grades employed, denoted by the letters below; the horizontal lines crossing the verticals at distances representing five points each enable us to determine the point at which the curve crosses the verticals. (In actual practice the ordinary cross-lined paper is most suitable for preparing such graphs.) In Fig. 1 the unbroken line represents the distribution of grades for 1907-8, the broken line the distribution for 1908-9, and the dotted line the average of the two. In comparing the table above with the figure it will

be observed that the distribution for 1907-8 gives 11.4 per cent F grades, represented in the figure by the point on the vertical line F at which the unbroken line begins; 23.3 per cent D grades, represented by the point on the vertical line D cut by the unbroken line from the line F to the line D; 28.0 per cent C grades, represented by the point on the vertical line C cut by

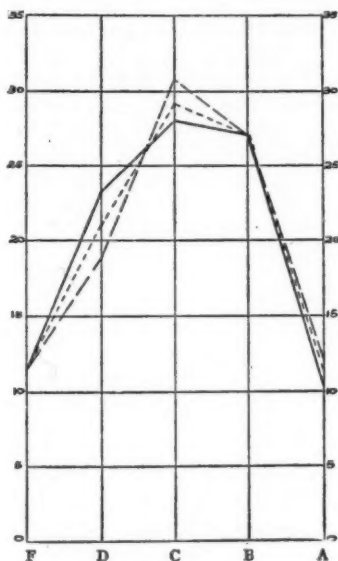


FIG. 1

Normal-----
 1907-8————
 1908-9— · — · —

the unbroken line from D to C; in like manner the percentage of B grades and of A grades, 27.0 and 10.3 respectively, are represented by the points on lines B and A at which these are cut by the unbroken line. This unbroken line, cutting in succession the lines F, D, C, B, and A, is the curve representing the distribution of grades of the entire school for the year 1907-8. Similarly the broken line, crossing the vertical lines at the points corresponding to the percentages given in the table, represents

the distribution of grades in 1908-9; and the dotted line represents the average of the other two which is assumed in this study as the normal for the school.

2. *Departmental variations.*—The following table shows the number and percentage of pupils receiving each grade in each department for the year 1908-9:

DEPARTMENT	NO. OF GRADES	F		D		C		B		A	
		No.	Per-centage	No.	Per-centage	No.	Per-centage	No.	Per-centage	No.	Per-centage
Latin and Greek	886	94	10.6	143	16.1	282	31.8	208	23.5	159	17.9
German.....	416	35	8.4	81	19.5	110	26.4	119	28.6	71	17.1
French.....	475	52	10.9	89	18.7	157	33.0	133	28.0	44	9.3
English.....	1,514	235	15.5	329	21.7	497	32.8	354	23.4	99	6.5
History.....	825	67	8.1	131	15.9	258	31.2	248	30.0	121	14.7
Mathematics....	1,466	212	14.5	370	25.2	405	27.6	310	21.1	169	11.5
Science.....	672	56	8.3	113	16.8	186	27.7	219	32.6	98	14.6
Shop and Drawing.....	867	76	8.8	122	14.1	289	33.3	287	33.1	93	10.7
Domestic Science.....	176	10	5.7	4	2.3	48	27.3	91	51.7	23	13.1
Total.....	7,297	837	11.5	1,382	18.9	2,232	30.6	1,969	27.0	877	12.0

A comparison of these percentages shows a wide variation. For instance, the percentage of failures in English (15.5) is almost double that in history (8.1), while the percentage of A grades in Latin and Greek (17.9) and in German (17.1) is almost three times as great as in English (6.5). These variations may be seen more readily by comparing the curve of each department with the normal curve in Figs. 2-10 following. In each figure the broken line represents the normal or average distribution of grades for the entire school, and the unbroken line represents the distribution of grades of the department under consideration.

A careful comparison of these curves shows that in the departments of Greek and Latin, German, history, science, shop and drawing the grades run considerably higher than the normal, and that in the departments of English and mathematics the grades are much lower than the normal; that the grades in French approach most closely to the normal; that the domes-

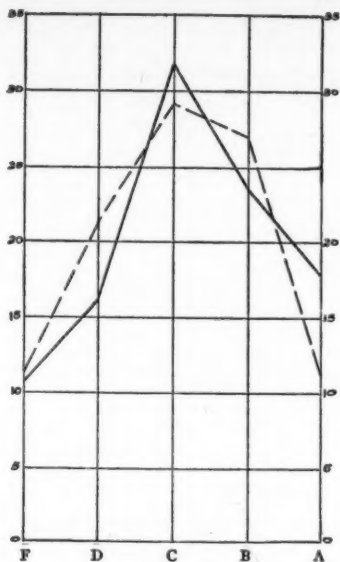


FIG. 2

Normal ———
 Greek }
 Latin } ———

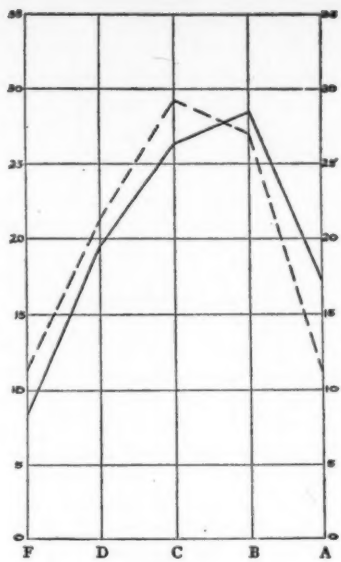


FIG. 3

Normal ———
 German ———

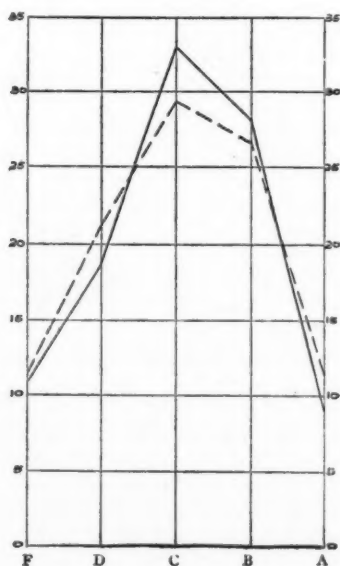


FIG. 4

Normal ———
 French ———

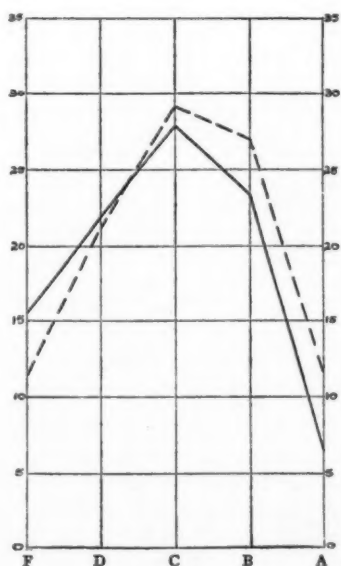


FIG. 5

Normal ———
 English ———

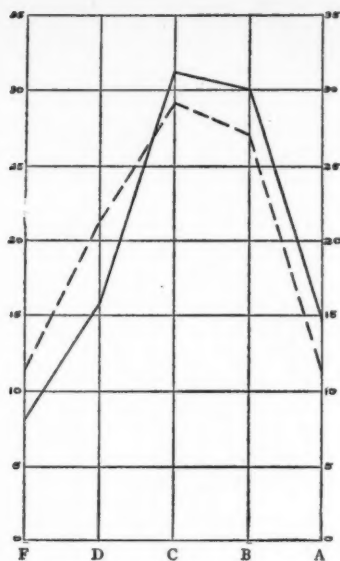


FIG. 6

Normal-----
History-----

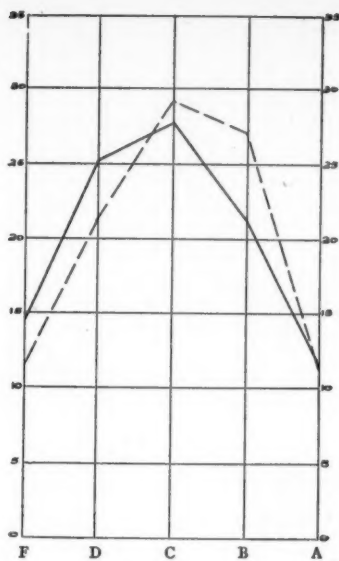


FIG. 7

Normal-----
Mathematics-----

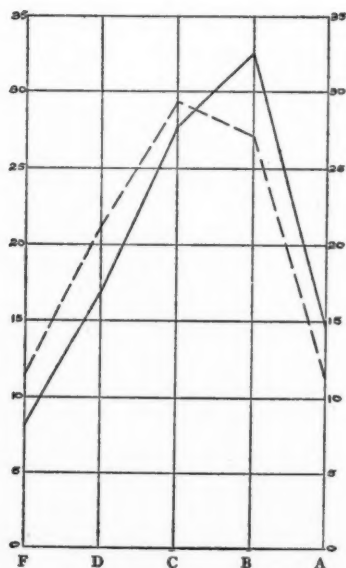


FIG. 8

Normal-----
Science-----

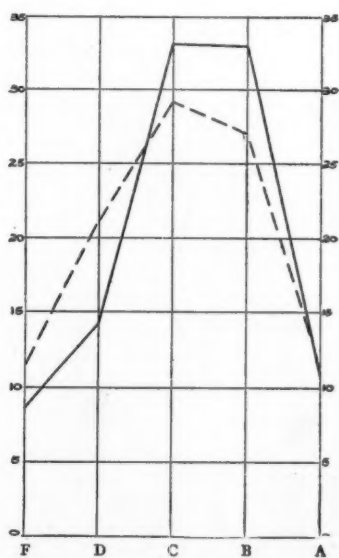


FIG. 9

Normal-----
Shop and-----
Drawing-----

tic science curve is very erratic, owing to the fact that more than one-half of the entire number of grades are B. There is nothing to indicate that these wide variations in the grades

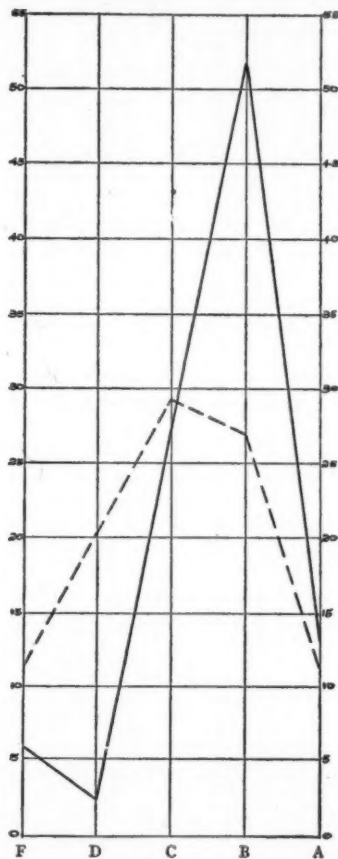


FIG. 10

Normal ————
Domestic Science ————

of the different departments represent any corresponding differences in the quality of the results secured; they are due almost wholly to a lack of uniformity in grading.

3. *Variations of individual teachers.*—A study of the methods of grading used by individual teachers shows far more striking differences. Fig. 11 shows the curves representing the

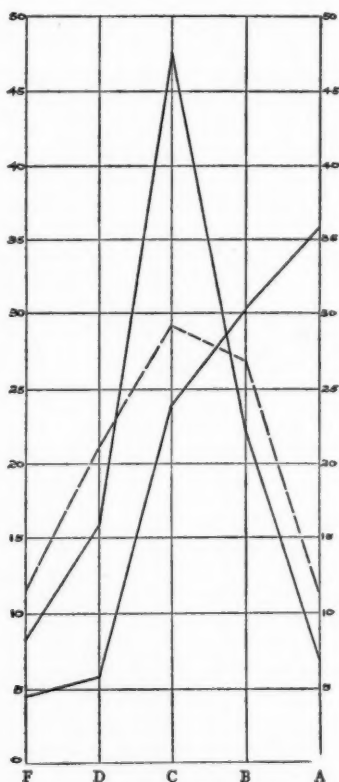


FIG. 11

Normal ————
Grades of two teachers
in the same department. } ————

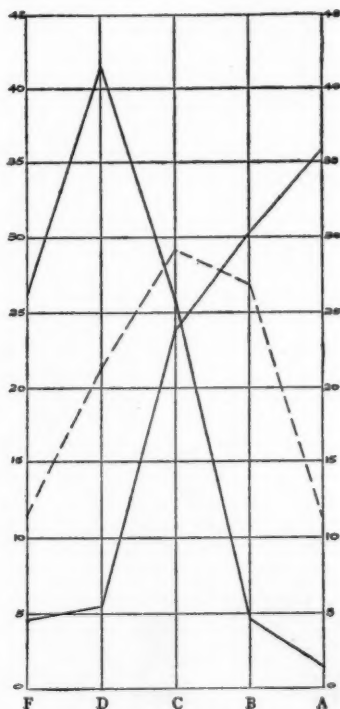


FIG. 12

Normal ————
Grades of two teachers
in different departments. } ————

grades given for the year by two teachers in the same department; Fig. 12 shows the curves for the two teachers, not in the same department, whose use of grades varies most widely of all. In Fig. 11 should be noted the unusual predominance of the grades

A and C, and in Fig. 12 the predominance of the grades, A, D, and F. While with individual teachers slight differences in the use of grades may represent different degrees of effectiveness or differences in the actual abilities of pupils, no such reason could possibly be assigned for the remarkable variations shown in these figures. In general it may be assumed that wide variations are due to the lack of a uniform standard in the use of grades employed.

4. *Efficiency of individual teachers.*—The efficiency of individual teachers may be studied by a comparison of the grades which their pupils receive in one year with the grades received by the same pupils in the following year. If a uniform standard of grading were employed by all the teachers in a department the results of such a comparison based on a large number of cases would furnish a reliable basis for determining the comparative efficiency of different teachers. In the present case there is not a sufficiently uniform standard in the use of grades nor is there in every instance a sufficient number of pupils to make the results of great significance. The following table makes such a comparison for the departments of English and mathematics, and the results may be regarded at least as indicating a reasonable inference as to the efficiency of the teachers involved. In mathematics five teachers taught first-year pupils who in the second year were rather evenly distributed among four of these same teachers. In English three teachers taught first-year pupils, who in the second year were rather evenly distributed among the same three and two other teachers. The individual variations in the use of grades are therefore in some degree compensated for, though not enough pupils are involved to make the results certainly reliable. This table shows in the first column the percentage of the first-year pupils under each instructor who received a lower grade in the work of the second year, in the second column the percentage of pupils who received a higher grade, in the third column the average loss (in one case gain) per pupil, in the fourth column the percentage of pupils who passed in the work of the first year who actually

failed in the second year. The teachers are designated by numbers.

Department	Teacher	Percentage of Pupils Receiving Lower Grade in Second Year	Percentage of Pupils Receiving Higher Grade in Second Year	Average Loss per Pupil in Grade of Second Year	Percentage of Pupils Failing in Second Year
Mathematics....	1	58.3	33.3	7.7	16.7
	2	63.2	30.5	3.4	10.5
	3	64.3	14.3	4.6	0.0
	4	50.0	41.7	1.4	8.3
	5	84.6	7.7	7.0	30.8
English.....	1	40.0	45.0	2.5 (gain)	5.0
	2	45.8	37.5	2.4	4.2
	3	69.0	31.0	1.5	10.3

From this table it is a reasonable conclusion that in the department of mathematics teachers 3 and 4 are the most effi-

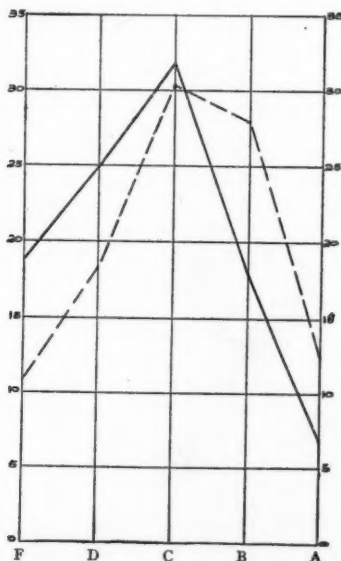


FIG. 13

Grades of Mid-Year Classes ———
Grades of Other Classes - - -

cient in the instruction of first-year pupils. The results shown by the table are less conclusive for the English department, but

seem to indicate that teacher 1 is the most efficient of the three.

5. *Mid-year classes.*—A study of the grades of the mid-year classes indicates that the quality of their work is distinctly inferior to that of the regular autumn classes and suggests serious question as to the advisability of admitting classes at the middle of the year. Fig. 13 shows graphically a comparison of the grades of mid-year classes with those of the other classes.

6. *Variations in departmental grades for different years.*—A comparison of the grades given for the work of different years in those departments in which the work is continuous raises some interesting questions regarding the content of the courses offered and the methods employed. The following table and Fig. 14 show the percentage of failures in the different years in five departments:

PERCENTAGE OF FAILURES BY YEARS

Subject	First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year
Latin.....	14.1	9.0	2.9
German.....	12.4	7.4
French.....	14.3	9.6	3.1
English.....	18.1	9.5	18.4	14.4
Mathematics.....	12.9	12.9	13.6	5.6

In general we should expect that in a well-organized department the number of failures would diminish each year. The above table and Fig. 14 show this to be the case in Latin, German, and French, but in both English and mathematics there is an increase of failures in the third year over the first and second years. This is most marked in English, in which the percentage of failures in the third year is almost double that in the second. It is the purpose of this article to show the facts rather than to discuss the causes, both of which in this case may be due to conditions peculiar to the University High School. It may be pointed out, however, that the methods employed in French and German are such that few pupils enter advanced classes who have not had the earlier work in the school, so that there is in these departments a greater uniformity of training than is

found in the advanced years in other departments; in Latin only the better pupils continue after the second year, as the colleges in the North Central Association accept two units of Latin for admission. All the pupils in the school take English, and the

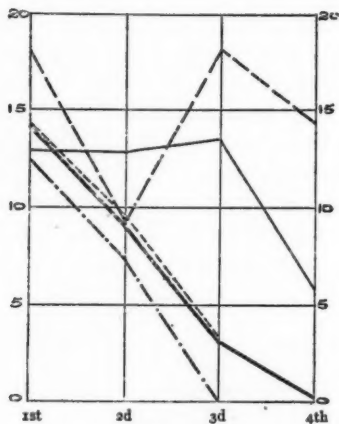


FIG. 14

Percentage of Failures by Years

Latin —————

German - - - - -

French

English -

Mathematics ————

larger part of the third-year pupils take mathematics. These facts, however, are probably insufficient to account for the increase in failures in these subjects in the third year, which calls for a careful study of conditions with a view to possible modification in the work in these departments.

THE FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION OF STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

ALVA W. STAMPER

State Normal School, Chico, California

In the good old days not so very long ago, not more than fifteen or twenty years at the most, our secondary schools were leading the simple life. In athletics there was baseball; on the intellectual side, the debating society. These practically constituted all of the activities in which high-school students participated, outside the regular classroom work.

In recent years student life has become more complex, a condition largely brought about by an effort on the part of the high school to take upon itself the organization and life of the university. The ordinary high school now supports baseball, football, tennis, track, and debating teams, and a school paper. Some schools add swimming, cross-country running, and one or more musical clubs. Most of these activities are under the control of regular organized bodies with a full equipment of managers, treasurers, and other necessary officers. Considerable business is transacted, and the financial question becomes important, especially in connection with inter-school contests. It is the financial side of these activities that concerns, or should concern, the school authorities.

It is safe to say that few of our educational institutions, whether high school, normal school, or college, are wholly satisfied with their supervision of the financial affairs of their respective student organizations. It is easy to establish a set of regulations that accounts shall be carefully kept and that reports must be made from time to time, but it is not so easy to get a body of young people to do this in a business-like way.

Perhaps some of the following questions have been asked by school faculties of those under their charge: What is the total indebtedness of a particular organization? What are its

total resources? Were all the tickets accounted for that were put on sale? Is a strict account kept of all receipts and expenditures, and are they recorded in a systematic manner? Are receipts and other vouchers at hand to verify the truthfulness of the accounts?

The American youth of today hardly knows what it is to assume responsibility where such responsibility means to advance the good of others. He will not recognize authority unless compelled. Neither will he attend to matters of business except in a way that gives him the least bother, unless influences are brought to bear upon him. Is there any better way to train students to be prepared for life's work than to cause them to conduct their business affairs in a business-like way, that is, in a way that would be practiced by any good business man?

The Chico Normal School has had a struggle in securing a business-like attitude on the part of its students, but we believe that we have attained some measure of success in training our students in this respect. Perhaps our experiences may help others.

The original suggestion for working out the following plans came from former-President Van Liew, whose interest made possible the carrying out of the work. These methods of financial control were tested in the combined student bodies of the preparatory and the regular normal courses of the Chico Normal School. All that follows here may be considered as applying equally well to either high or normal schools, but is primarily designed for students of the secondary-school age.

I. A PLAN OF AUDITING ACCOUNTS

About nine years ago we realized that something had to be done to straighten out the financial affairs of some of our student organizations. Upon inquiry being made of one organization, the treasurer thought there was owing about \$50. When unreceipted bills were examined, the indebtedness was found to be over \$100. Finally, after full inquiry had been made, the indebtedness was found to be over \$200. We also found that at least two organizations allowed the participants in cer-

tain activities either to share in the profits or to enjoy a banquet, or "feed" as they called it. Consequently some organizations, if they had no debt, at least had no profit to transfer to their successors in office.

When we first planned to adopt a system of auditing accounts there was not the fullest co-operation on the part of the various managers and treasurers. A few felt that we distrusted their honesty. But carelessness, not dishonesty, is the sin we have had to fight against. We soon secured the co-operation of the Associated Students. They elected two members and the faculty one member of an auditing committee. It was arranged for this committee to report to the Associated Students once a month. Later it was found advisable to have five members on the committee, two from the faculty and three from the Associated Students, one of the latter being president of that body.

Our plan is described in the two following sets of instructions, which are given respectively to those reporting to the Auditing Committee and to the members of this committee:

INSTRUCTIONS TO REPRESENTATIVES OF STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS REPORTING TO
THE AUDITING COMMITTEE

I. Suggestions relating to the keeping of accounts.

In order to expedite matters in auditing the accounts of the various student organizations, the Auditing Committee requests the representatives of these organizations to observe the following instructions:

1. Keep a cash book.

If there are any standing accounts also open a ledger.

Keep a list of the members of the society represented. This may be kept in the back part of the cash book. Arrange columns so as to show the payment of dues for the different months or occasions.

2. All business transactions should be entered on the books the day the transactions occur. The only exception should be when a blotter is kept. Do not neglect entering the proper dates.

3. When much cash is regularly carried, open an account with the Training-School Bank. Your books should show this.

4. Do not advance money of your own for the payment of bills. In case you should do this—for this rule may be violated in extreme cases—your books should show the transaction.

5. Keep all cash of your society separate from your own. This will

help check your accounts. Buy a small sack, which will belong to the society.

6. Insist on giving and taking receipts in all money transactions. Have proper dates affixed.

II. When reporting to the Auditing Committee.

1. Have the Auditing Committee blank properly filled out before coming to the committee room, using lead pencil. When the report is accepted, change from lead pencil to ink (see form below).

2. Fill out a report blank even if business stands as it did at the previous report.

3. Present all receipts, other vouchers, and bills in the order of the corresponding accounts on the books.

4. Always bring books, properly balanced, when the report is made.

Bring membership list, showing dues received since last report.

Bring all cash not in bank.

5. Have at hand, when reporting, the necessary figures showing the correctness of the amount under "bills due" on the report blank.

6. Report blanks may be found in the lower right-hand drawer of the chest in Room A. It is suggested that these blanks be got and filled out the day before reports are due.

7. No reports will be audited by the committee until the above regulations are complied with.

8. After reporting, paste all receipts and receipted bills in the book provided for that purpose in Room A.

9. Reports will be made to the Auditing Committee the Thursday before the last Tuesday of the school month at 3:40 P.M., in Room A.

10. Unaccepted and tardy reports will not be acted upon by the committee until the next regular meeting, unless the Associated Students direct otherwise.

11. All representatives when closing their terms of office will give their books, properly balanced, to the new officers, and take a receipt for all money turned over.

12. The old officers should assist the new officers in making out their first reports.

13. At the beginning of each term the representatives of the different societies will file with the Auditing Committee a statement of probable expenditures for the ensuing term. In case expenditures are contemplated that were not foreseen at the beginning of the term, the proper representatives should so report to the Auditing Committee before said expenditures are made.

14. Those having charge of the property of the athletic associations should give an inventory of such property to the Auditing Committee at the end of each term.

FORM OF REPORT TO THE AUDITING COMMITTEE

CHICO NORMAL SCHOOL

Date.....19....

Report of the.....
to the Auditing Committee

Cash on hand at last report.....				
Cash received since the last report.....				
Cash paid out since the last report.....				
Balance.....				
<hr/>				
Resources (not including inventory)				
Cash on hand.....				
Bills due us.....				
Liabilities				
Unpaid bills...				
Present worth or insolvency.....				
<hr/>				

Signed.....

III. To those having charge of sale of tickets

1. Stamp all tickets with the Normal stamp. Do this with the help of a member of the Auditing Committee, who will also help count the tickets stamped.

2. When giving out tickets to be sold, either before the contest or entertainment or at the door, fill in the proper data on a prepared blank, a copy of which appears below.

When unsold tickets are returned or money received for tickets sold handed in, obtain the signature of the one who returns the tickets or money.

3. When reporting to the Auditing Committee, bring the above account and also a statement of the totals of tickets stamped, tickets sold, tickets unsold, and complimentary tickets, a form for which is given below.

4. All tickets collected at the door should be mutilated. All unsold tickets should be given to the Auditing Committee.

5. The report on the sale of tickets should be in the hands of the Auditing Committee within three school days after the game or function for which the tickets were sold.

FORM OF REPORT ON SALE OF TICKETS

(a)

Those to whom tickets are given to be sold	Number of tickets given	Number of tickets sold	Number of tickets returned	Cash Received	Signature of person whose name appears opposite (to be obtained when tickets and money are accounted for)
Totals					

(b)

Total number of tickets stamped	
“ “ “ “ sold	
“ “ “ “ returned unsold	
“ “ “ “ complimentary	
Totals	

INSTRUCTIONS TO MEMBERS OF THE AUDITING COMMITTEE

1. As a preliminary, see (1) if the auditing blank is filled out; (2) if the books are balanced; and (3) if vouchers accompany the report. If any one of these matters has not been attended to, do not audit the account.

2. The preliminary inspection being satisfactory, next check off the receipts and other vouchers with the corresponding entries in the account books.

3. Verify the correctness of the balances in the account books.

4. After the books are examined, next pass to the report.

a) Note that the upper half of the report is merely a summary taken from the cash book.

b) See if the "cash on hand at last report" in the present report agrees with cash balance in the previous report.

c) Next examine the lower half of the report. This shows how business stands. Under "resources" are found the present cash on hand,

and all that can be turned into cash, and "bills due" (inventory is not included).

d) Compare the "bills due" in the previous report with the present and ask for the necessary figures to show the correctness of the present statement. In this connection a membership list and a ledger, if one is kept, should be presented.

e) Under "liabilities" is found "unpaid bills." The corresponding ledger accounts, or unreceipted bills, or both, should be shown.

f) Verify balances.

g) Note if there is a "present worth" or a "present insolvency" and make the report read accordingly.

h) The report being correct, see that it is in ink. The balances should be in red ink.

i) Finally "O. K." the report at the bottom. (New members of the Auditing Committee should refer the report to one of the faculty members before finally accepting it.)

j) The chairman of the committee will take charge of all reports and in due time will submit a "report of the Auditing Committee" to the Associated Students.

At the present time our plan is working successfully. We find some individuals not inclined to follow our regulations, but these generally give us little trouble, as the student body now realizes that the Auditing Committee must have its support.

In observing the practical good our students get out of this work, we are convinced of the truth of the maxim that one learns to do by doing.

II A SCHOOL CLEARING-HOUSE

In the working out of the above plan of auditing accounts, one chief aim has been realized in that the student officers have learned to attend to money matters in a business-like way. But these officers have been hindered in the discharge of their duties by the tardiness of the students at large in paying their dues and taxes. Such delay is to be expected in a body of 350 students, where the one collecting has to run his chance of finding the persons he wants in the halls. The need of a central meeting-place for the convenience of both payees and payers becomes evident.

A more fundamental problem than that of convenience arises in this connection. While no student should be forced, either

by the faculty or by the student body, to enter into any financial obligation in connection with the activities of the school, yet when he once pledges himself in this respect he is morally bound to live up to his contract. And it is the duty and the business of the school authorities to see that he does so. Such pledges are considered binding in civil life; why not in connection with the life in school? A specified time and place for redeeming these pledges might make it easier for the student to conform to the moral and business standards that obtain in the larger life outside the school.

To meet these needs a school clearing-house was organized, the rules of which are given below.

CLEARING-HOUSE OF THE ASSOCIATED STUDENTS OF THE CHICO STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

PURPOSE

This Clearing-House is instituted to provide a means for collecting all taxes and dues pledged to the various student enterprises, classes, and societies of the State Normal School at Chico.

PLAN

1. The Clearing-House shall be open every school day from 12:45 to 12:55 P.M., on Monday from 2:40 to 2:50 P.M., and on other days from 3:30 to 3:40 P.M., in Room A.

2. A cashier and two assistant cashiers shall be appointed by the president of the Associated Students, the term of office being one-half a school-semester. These officials shall be assisted by the various class and society treasurers as the occasion demands and be under the general supervision of the department of mathematics.

3. The treasurers of the various classes and societies, or the otherwise properly constituted persons, shall file with the Clearing-House: (a) a list, alphabetically arranged, of the members or persons that pledge themselves for any particular dues or taxes, who must liquidate all such indebtedness during Clearing-House hours: (b) a receipt book containing the receipts, alphabetically arranged, corresponding to the names that appear on the list. The receipts should be made out in full with the exception of the date, which is filled in by the Clearing-House. One receipt, properly itemized, may include more than one tax or pledge. The name of the class or society should be plainly written on the cover of the receipt book.

The list of names given to the Clearing-House should be written on foolscap, one side only, with the name of the organization submitting the

list, the name of its treasurer, and the date when filed, written at the top, allowing at least two inches top margin.

In the class lists, divide the space on the right of the list of names into three columns. Above the first write "Associated Students' Tax" and the amount. Above the second write "Class Tax" and the amount. Other organizations need provide but one column with the amount of the individual tax at the top.

The various treasurers should keep duplicate lists of the names placed on file and from time to time check up payments from the Clearing-House list, thereby learning who are delinquent. The treasurers should remind said delinquents of their indebtedness.

4. When money is paid to the Clearing-House, the proper amount shall be credited to the names on the list and receipts given.

5. All money received by the Clearing-House shall be deposited in the Training-School Bank each day immediately upon the close of Clearing-House hours.

When depositing money to the credit of any organization, the Clearing-House cashier shall make out deposit slips in triplicate, one of which shall be kept by the bank, the second kept by the Clearing-House as a receipt, the third retained by the Clearing-House until called for by the organization treasurer.

6. The various class and society treasurers shall draw on the Training-School Bank for all money due them.

These officers should be provided with the necessary passbook and check book. They should from time to time obtain from the Clearing-House the duplicate deposit slips on file and have the Bank give credit in the passbook.

Passbooks should be handed to the Bank to be balanced at least once a month. This will facilitate matters for those organizations reporting to the Auditing Committee.

7. The Clearing-House officers and the officers of the various classes and societies should urge the students at large to open an account with the Training-School Bank and to pay in the Clearing-House by means of checks.

The Clearing-House has been in operation about a year and a half, and is proving a convenience to the students. Those in charge get some business practice, and even the students who only make payments learn something practical. A number of students did not realize at first that they were to do business. Now and then a few forget their obligations, but the fact that the faculty has access to the lists kept on file tends to make our experiment a success.

SUMMER APPRENTICESHIP IN THE BOSTON HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

WINTHROP TIRRELL
The High School of Commerce, Boston

In the *School Review* for January, 1910, Mr. F. V. Thompson, former head master of the Boston High School of Commerce, referred to the summer employment which constitutes a part of the work of the school. He quoted a letter which had been sent out to the business men of Boston explaining the purpose of giving the boys summer positions. He did not show in a detailed way the results secured or the experience gained by this plan. It is the purpose of this paper to give in more detail the history, results, and present status of summer work by the boys of the school.

Ever since its establishment in 1906, the school has tried to keep in as close touch as possible with the business community. All of the school work is consciously directed toward fitting boys to meet actual business conditions. The plan of summer employment, then, is not entirely separate from the rest of the school work, but merely emphasizes its importance. It gives the boys a chance to apply what they have learned, through actual business experience. With this fact in mind, Mr. Thompson and the Advisory Committee of business men devised the plan of summer apprenticeship for boys of the second and third-year classes.

So long as the school was small it was possible to place boys in summer positions with little difficulty. Much attention could be given to the individual boy, and the number of positions needed was not large. For the past two years, however, increasing numbers have made it necessary to adopt a more systematic plan of procedure. The difficulties encountered during the summer of 1909 led to the adoption of the following plan:

- 1) To prepare and send out to the merchants of Boston a circular letter outlining our apprenticeship system and asking their co-operation.
- 2) To follow this up with a series of personal interviews by a representative of the school.
- 3) To secure definite promises of three hundred positions for the next summer under the following conditions:
 - a) Each boy to receive two dollars a week. If he proves to be worth more, his pay may naturally be raised. This minimum wage limit is set to give the boy sufficient money to buy lunches and pay car fares. It will also show that wages are a minor consideration, and that the real end is practical business experience.
 - b) So far as is possible, without interfering with the regular routine of business, the boys shall be assigned work that is sufficiently varied to give them opportunity to observe several phases of the business.
 - c) Boys shall be given a definite understanding of the purpose of the school in securing for them this summer employment. They shall also be told some of the things (to be learned by consultation with business men) that their experience ought to teach them.
 - d) The circular letter mentioned above shall be prepared and sent out and the personal interviews shall be secured during the winter and spring (January to March), so that the desired number of positions may be obtained before the last few weeks of the school year.

The letter mentioned was sent out by Mr. Frederick P. Fish, chairman of the Executive Committee of the larger Business Men's Advisory Committee, and was as follows:

DEAR SIR: The High School of Commerce is now entering upon the fourth year of its existence. As a Boston man, you undoubtedly know that the aim of the school is to secure commercial efficiency in its graduates. In pursuance of this end, a large number of pupils in the three upper classes have, in the past, obtained summer employment in business houses. Last summer 65 per cent of the young men in these classes were so employed. This experience forms an invaluable part of the business training which the school desires to give, supplementing, as it does, the theoretical teaching of the classroom.

We feel that the results thus far secured are highly encouraging; but we aim to increase the efficiency of this feature of our work, by forming an even closer connection than now exists between the school and the business interests of the city.

Our plan in brief is as follows: We desire to secure three hundred positions for summer employment at a minimum wage of two dollars per week. This limit is set to give the boys employed sufficient money to pay

car fares and buy lunches. It is not essential that no higher pay shall be received, but wages are a minor consideration. The chief aim is to give the boys business experience.

It seems to us that two or three summers spent in a position of this kind will make our graduates much more efficient and ready for immediate service with any business house. We know of no other way in which the merchants of Boston can more effectively show their interest in commercial education and at the same time insure the opportunity of securing intelligent and efficient young men in the near future, than by agreeing to employ boys of the High School of Commerce under those conditions and thus participating in their development.

We desire to secure promises of positions for next summer as soon as possible. With this end in view, a representative from the school will call upon you in the near future.

Trusting that we shall receive your co-operation, I am

Very truly yours,

Chairman, Executive Committee

In deciding to whom these letters should be sent, valuable assistance was received from several members of the Boston Chamber of Commerce. These men, who are also members of the Business Men's Advisory Committee mentioned above, secured a list of firms from the Chamber of Commerce and checked those which in their opinion would be ready to co-operate with the school by giving summer employment. This gave a list of over six hundred business houses which could be taken as a field in which to work. This list has proved very helpful, although as yet less than half the firms have been visited.

Each week beginning about January 1, a dozen letters were sent out to firms chosen from the list. A teacher from the school called on each firm, explained the plan, and secured promises of positions for the summer. In this way, 172 firms were visited between January and May. Of these, 112 gave favorable replies to the representatives of the school, while 60 answers were unfavorable. This does not mean that 60 firms were hostile to the plan, but simply that the nature of their business was such that they were unable to use boys during the summer. In nearly all cases the business men showed a real interest in the plan, and promised to send to the school for boys if it should be

possible to use them. Through the 172 visits, promises of approximately 220 positions were secured.

It then became necessary to find boys fitted for the available places. To make the adjustment of demand and supply as accurate as possible, the following form of card was placed in the hands of members of the second and third-year classes:

HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE

SUMMER APPRENTICESHIP

Every boy of the Second and Third Year Classes is expected to spend at least four weeks of his summer vacation as an employee in a business house subject to the following conditions:

1. *He must be sufficiently mature to undertake such work.*
2. *He must have a satisfactory school record.*
3. *He must be recommended by his Room Teacher.*
4. *He will take with him to the business house a summary of his school record, and bring back to the school a summary of his record with the business house.*

5. *He must secure his parent's signature to the following statement:
I have read the above statements and approve of my son's working during the summer of 19.... under the conditions mentioned.*

The school will TRY to secure boys positions in the kind of business for which they express a preference, but does not guarantee doing so.

.....
Parent's Signature

Sign one (not both) of the following:

(For those who have no position in view for next summer).

1. *I desire to secure a position in the business during the coming summer.*

(For those who have a position in view for next summer).

2. *I have secured a position in the business with theCo. for the coming summer.*

Pupil's Signature.....

Address.....

Class.....Age.....

As will be readily seen, this card gave the Employment Bureau information which enabled it to make a satisfactory adjustment of boys to positions. In case a boy had already secured a position himself, it was at once possible to add the name of the firm employing him to the list of co-operating firms mentioned above.

Naturally in any adjustment such as this some shrinkage must be expected. Promises made in January cannot always be carried out in June. Many boys depend on the money earned during the summer to pay school expenses for the following year, and consequently cannot afford to accept positions at two dollars a week for the sake of experience. Nevertheless the school was able either directly or indirectly to place approximately 190 boys in summer positions last year. Besides these 56 found places for themselves, so that the total number employed was 246. This statement includes the present three upper classes of the school. In the two highest classes the figures were as follows: working, 162 (63 per cent); not working, 97 (37 per cent).

Perhaps a word of explanation should be given regarding boys listed as not working. In most cases, the boy's parents did not wish him to work, or else he was considered too immature. In very few cases were boys who wished to work unable to secure positions. Of course the school could not, and did not desire to, force a boy to work against his parents' wishes.

The work of the Employment Bureau in securing positions was confined almost entirely to the second and third-year classes. It was found, however, that many first-year boys secured positions of their own initiative. In every such case the school was very glad to furnish as a recommendation a summary of the boy's school record.

As will be seen from the card shown above, every boy was expected to take such a record with him to the business house. The following form of letter was devised for this purpose:

The bearer of this note is completing his year as a student in the High School of Commerce. He wishes to secure a position with your firm for summer work in accordance with the Apprenticeship Plan already explained to you by a representative of the school.

His school record is as follows: Conduct Scholarship Co-operation Industry Politeness Honesty Reliability

I should be pleased to have you talk with the bearer of the note, and if you believe that he has qualities which would make him desirable in your employment I should be glad to have you give him an opportunity.

Additional information concerning the boy will be furnished should you have specific questions in mind.

Very truly yours,

Head Master, High School of Commerce

The facts necessary to fill out the letter are obtained from the boy's "character card." This card, shown below, is kept on file in the school office and is filled out three times each year by the teacher in whose room the boy sits. The boys know that these "character cards" form the basis of their recommendations. This form of card is intended to cover those points which most directly interest business men in their choice of employment, and was adopted after consultation with the Business Men's Committee:

YEAR 1909		TEACHER Wm. Jones		HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE	
Name	Doe, John				
Conduct	Good	Poor		Fair	
Scholarship	Fair	Only passable, could be better		Passable, could be better	
Punctuality	Excellent	Excellent		Excellent	
Attendance	Excellent	Excellent		Excellent	
Athletics	No evidence	None		None	
Leadership		None		Wanting	
Popularity	Good	Good		Wanting	
Co-operation	Fair	Wanting		Wanting	
Personal Appearance	Pleasing	OK		Pleasing	
Health	Excellent	Excellent		Excellent	
Politeness	Good	Good		Good	
Honesty		OK		OK	
Reliability	Good	Unreliable		Not Good	

Another feature of the plan adopted this year is the record of efficiency which the boy is expected to bring back from his summer position. This is permanently filed in the Employment Bureau. It is printed on the opposite side of the card which shows the line of business a boy wishes to enter, and is filled out by his employer.

RECORD OF EFFICIENCY FOR SUMMER OF 19....

Filled out by

Official position.....

Firm Name

Date

A.—Excellent.

B.—Good.

C.—Fair.

D.—Poor.

*Responsibility. 1. Working well without supervision.**2. Working for results.**Initiative. 1. Energy in going ahead and doing things alone.**2. Ability to meet emergencies.**Accuracy. 1. Making few mistakes.**2. Doing work neatly and thoroughly.**Co-operation. Ability to work well with others.**Appearance. Good taste in dress and manner.*

The interest shown by the boys in returning good efficiency records shows that this check on the summer's work has a definite value.

The results of the plan thus far are decidedly gratifying. Many business men who knew nothing of the school and its aims have become interested and ready to co-operate by giving the practical experience so necessary to supplement any theoretical business training. Many who were skeptical as to the value of temporary employees have expressed their willingness to employ permanently the boys who worked for them last summer, as soon as they are graduated from the school. One firm is employing ten boys from the graduating class during the Christmas holidays as a direct result of the good work done by one boy last summer.

The boys themselves feel that they have gained valuable experience, and realize that their good or bad record helps or injures the reputation of the school. They also realize that their chances of securing desirable places on graduation are materially increased by good records in summer employment and correspondingly injured by poor ones.

There are several difficulties attending the carrying out of the plan. First, it is difficult to convince many business men that they will gain by co-operating with the school. As time

goes on, this should become easier, because the testimony of other business men will carry more weight than the opinion of teachers. Second, it is difficult to secure promises of positions far enough ahead so that definite plans can be made for filling them. The average business man is unwilling to promise in February to employ boys in July, because he cannot tell what the condition of his business will be at that time. There are also numerous cases where it is difficult to find boys suitable and willing to fill available positions.

The experience of this year has shown that the two dollars a week minimum wage is not an especially valuable feature of the plan. Most business men prefer to pay what the boy is worth, and this also gives the boy an incentive to do better work to increase his wages.

The personal visits to business houses by representatives of the school have been of distinct advantage. Even where no positions were secured, the business men expressed an interest in the school, and have in a number of cases given permanent employment to graduates.

During the present winter and spring our intention is to reach by letter those firms which employed boys last summer, and to extend our list of co-operating firms by personal visits. Other changes and improvements will probably be made. One member of the Business Men's Advisory Committee has been delegated to act as special adviser in the matter of summer employment and his suggestions will undoubtedly prove very helpful.

The value of such a plan must of course be measured by its results. If the experience of the Boston High School of Commerce furnishes any criterion, the plan is certainly well worth while.

In any large city where the business men are far-sighted enough to recognize their own interests and public-spirited enough to co-operate with the schools some such plan of employment can be successfully carried out. Our experience indicates that this feature of the school's activity is destined to become more important with each succeeding year.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE¹

STRATTON D. BROOKS

Superintendent of Public Schools, Boston, Mass.

At the outset I wish to distinguish between vocational placement and vocational guidance. By vocational placement I mean fitting a job to the attainments that a boy now has. By vocational guidance I mean fitting a boy to a job that he will at some future time be able to fill, if he follows the course of instruction outlined by his vocational adviser. Vocational placement finds a job now better fitted to the boy's present attainments than he would otherwise be likely to find. Vocational guidance fits the boy for a better job in the future by training the boy along the lines of his greatest aptitudes and opportunities. Both consider the boy's abilities; one for the purpose of making the best possible present use of them; the other with a view to giving them additional development, in order to secure in the future a still greater use of them. It is this latter phase of vocational guidance that is discussed here.

Educational methods and educational machinery are being overhauled in the light of a new purpose, namely, the more specific preparation of pupils for particular vocations in life. The most important immediate effect of the movement for industrial education has been to move forward suddenly the time of choice, and it is this necessity to choose early a definite career that renders desirable a consideration of vocational direction.

The schools of the past have presented the same type of education for all pupils, and vocational direction consisted mainly in advising a boy to take or not to take additional education. But under the new conditions, vocational direction will not only be concerned with advising a boy to take additional education, but with deciding what particular kind of additional education

¹ Read at the First National Conference on Vocational Guidance, Boston, November, 1910.

he should take in order to be of greatest service to himself and to the community.

Formerly, a teacher might with a clear conscience advise a boy to take a high-school course or go to college even to prepare for medicine or law, for the education offered in high school or college was so general in character and so wide of application that, whatever the boy's future vocation, he was almost sure to succeed better in it because of his extended training. Furthermore, the final entry into the medical school or the law school came at so late a date that any change of interest or error in the estimate of the boy's ability had time to show itself. But he who in these days of special education advises a boy to enter some particular trade and selects for him a course of study restricted to the practical elements of that trade may not give advice lightly, for the possibilities of error are increased a hundredfold, while the possibilities of correcting an error, if made are almost non-existent.

The new element in the situation and the one that causes the chief difficulty, because of the establishment of specific industrial schools, is that the avowed purpose of industrial education is to prepare for a specific end, and in order to be valuable and effective to that end it must be restrictive in nature. Cultural education is criticized because, though good, it is not good for anything particular, while industrial education is praised because it is not only good, but good for something. When considered from the point of view of vocational advice, however, the chief trouble is that industrial education, though good for something, is only good for some *one* thing, and in proportion as it succeeds, it limits for the boy or girl who received it the possibility of success in any other line of endeavor. He who enters upon a successful industrial training, especially of the lower and more specific type, becomes by that very education less fitted for entrance upon a different work. In case events show that the boy is not qualified for the work selected, there is little opportunity to correct the error. To advise a boy to take up a restrictive educational course is a matter requiring much graver consideration than to advise him to take a non-

restrictive course, and vocational direction, therefore, attains an importance that it has not hitherto had.

The chief motto of vocational direction in the past has been, "Aim at the highest." There are those who call our present educational system a failure on the ground that we have attempted to educate every boy to become a president of the United States. But the man who should seriously criticize the school for stating as its aim the education of presidents would fail to recognize that the statement is but the embodiment of the general principle that every boy shall have the incentive and the opportunity to reach the highest development of which he is capable. It will be unfortunate indeed when American education ceases to encourage everyone to take active part in democratic citizenship and to feel honored by the opportunity to render public service. It is undoubtedly true that intellectual superiority has received greater recognition in the schools than mechanical skill; but it is also true that the same difference has existed in the world at large, and that it will probably continue to exist.

Today we face a new situation. The demand for more skilful workmen is upon us, and the people are asking the schools to solve the question. What I want to keep clearly in mind, however, is that this ought not to be a demand for a *substitute* education but for a *supplementary* education; that the error of the school in the past in pointing every pupil toward academic callings would be even worse repeated, if it should now attempt to place every boy in a mechanical trade.

There is less danger to society from men who have aimed high and failed because of their own lack of ability than there is from able and ambitious men who writhe under an apparently unjust discrimination of society that gives greater rewards to other men naturally no more richly endowed.

But whether we favor or disapprove, it seems evident that industrial education will go forward and that in the larger cities, at least, separate schools will undoubtedly be established, wherein each class of pupils may receive whatever type of elementary industrial instruction the combined wisdom of the citi-

zens, the school committee, and the teachers determine to be best suited to the purpose in hand. The introduction of separate schools will bring upon the American people a new and serious problem, namely, the necessity of an early choice of a vocation. Reliable information and competent advice must be furnished, both to children and to adults, showing what vocations are open to children, what conditions prevail in each, and what the rewards of success may be.

In view of these needs, we have been endeavoring in Boston to establish vocational direction on a satisfactory foundation. I wish to state briefly what has been attempted.

Boston is fortunate in having a group of liberal-minded men and women through whose generosity the Vocation Bureau has been established and maintained. The Boston School Committee has invited the co-operation of the Vocation Bureau and the director of this Bureau has worked hand in hand with the Vocation Direction Committee of the Public Schools—a committee appointed by the superintendent and consisting of masters and submasters in the Boston Schools. Among the many activities of the Vocation Bureau, I mention three: first, the investigation of conditions in the trades and businesses of Boston. The Bureau has undertaken to prepare material for the use of pupils, parents, and vocational counselors that will furnish the best available information with reference to the vocational opportunities that exist in Boston. Second, the vocation Bureau is conducting in one of the public-school buildings a school for vocational counselors wherein teachers and others who are interested in this important work may prepare themselves for the better performance of their important tasks. Third, the Vocation Bureau has brought about a co-operation of effort whereby various organizations have undertaken to perform needed services without duplication of effort.

An important part of the question of vocational selection is the amount of interest and attention that parents must give. To this problem of arousing an interest in parents, the School and Home Association has agreed to devote especial attention. By means of discussions before the Parents' Associations of

which it is composed, this society will be able to do much to create a widespread and intelligent interest in the problem.

It is necessary also that accurate information be gathered with reference to the specific instruction offered in day and evening schools both public and private. The Women's Municipal League has undertaken to collect this information and to set it forth definitely and concisely in the form of printed charts.

To the work of giving vocational advice to girls who have left school, the Girls' Trade Education League will give special attention.

In the schools themselves many things have been done at the suggestion of the Committee on Vocational Direction, chief among which is the appointment in each high school and elementary school of one or more vocational counselors. These counselors have been selected by the principals with reference to their interest in the work of vocational direction, their skill in determining the abilities and possibilities of the children, and their willingness to devote extra time to acquiring information and perfecting themselves for the successful performance of their duties. Meetings of these counselors have been held for the purpose of discussing the problems of vocational direction and considering how best to minimize its dangers and increase its beneficial results. Most of them are now taking a course of instruction arranged by the Vocation Bureau wherein they may be even more efficiently prepared for the work of directing pupils wisely. As an illustration of the work of these vocational counselors the following will serve:

Last June twice as many elementary-school graduates as could be admitted elected the High School of Commerce and the High School of Practical Arts. Hitherto when similar conditions have arisen it has been necessary to choose the half that could be admitted either by lot or on the basis of scholarship. This year the existence of the vocational counselors rendered possible a different and a better procedure. The principal of each elementary school was sent a list of the boys in his school who had applied for admission to the High School of Commerce, with the statement that only half could be admitted.

The request was made that the vocational counselor of the school select that half. The principal of the High School of Commerce met the vocational counselors, explained the special work done in that school, and outlined the qualities that a boy must possess in order to succeed therein. The vocational counselors then approached the question of choosing the boys to be admitted, having on the one hand some knowledge of the special qualities needed in that particular school, and, on the other hand, a knowledge of the tastes and aptitudes of the boy as shown by his work in the elementary school. The boys chosen by the vocational counselors were then admitted. A similar course was pursued with girls for the High School of Practical Arts, and it is hoped that this process of selection has brought into these schools a higher percentage of pupils fitted to do the work therein than could have been secured by either of the methods previously pursued.

Somewhat different and less difficult than the problem of selecting a school is the work done in specific vocational schools, as illustrated in the High School of Commerce and the Trade School for Girls.

Since the High School of Commerce was organized in 1906 systematic instruction has been given with reference to existing business opportunities and the possibilities of each. Carefully prepared courses of lectures, based on accurate investigations of conditions in Boston and elsewhere, have been presented each year. The whole atmosphere of the school has been permeated with the idea of choosing wisely some particular business. The purpose of the school is not only to fit the boy for a commercial career, but to find that particular commercial career in which he gives promise of the greatest progress. In order to assist in the process of fitting each boy to his business a system of summer apprenticeship has been established. Prior to the summer vacation in 1909, and again in 1910, the School Committee appointed a man to have charge of the work of finding employment for the high-school boys during the summer in the business houses of the city. The business men have co-operated heartily in the plan. They agree to give the boys the best possible chance to obtain a

knowledge of the business and demonstrate their own fitness or unfitness for it. In particular, they agree not to hire the boy after school opens in September, even though he has shown special aptitude for the work in hand. By this means the business men have a sympathetic understanding of the aims of the school, the school appreciates more thoroughly the demands made upon the boys who enter business, and the boys obtain some insight into the relation of their school tasks to their life work.

In the Trade School for Girls provision is made for a *vocational assistant* for each hundred girls. The school teaches certain trades and the vocational assistant is charged with the duty of investigating conditions existing in these trades, in order to enable the school to adapt its course to the exact needs of business, and to provide accurate and up-to-date information available for use of parents and pupils.

It is the business of the vocational assistant to secure positions for graduates, and in this sense she conducts an employment bureau, but with the important difference that she knows both the conditions in the trade and the qualifications of the particular girls, and, therefore, endeavors not merely to find a place for the girl, but a place where she will succeed. The work of the vocational assistant, however, but begins with finding a place for the girl. It is success that counts, and the vocational assistant is to keep track of her girls, know which ones succeed, and more especially which ones fail, and why they fail; to find for those who fail other places better suited to their abilities, or perchance advise them to return to school until they reach a degree of proficiency that will enable them to retain a position once obtained.

On the moral side also the vocational assistant will have great effect. Before the girl leaves school, it is hoped that such a mutual relation of confidence and friendship will be established that any girl who finds herself at work in a shop or factory where conditions are improper, will report promptly to the vocational assistant, with the result that the girl will be placed in another position, and that no more girls will be sent to the shop or factory complained of until conditions are improved. When per-

chance a girl is placed in a position in which she cannot advance or from which she is discharged, the vocational assistant should be on hand to encourage and assist, to tide the girl over immediate difficulty, and to find some other work wherein there is greater prospect of earning a living wage.

In both of these schools it will be observed that the problem is that of selecting a particular business or trade within a comparatively limited range from which the pupil, by entering the school, has elected to choose. Much broader and far more difficult is the task of selecting the school to which a boy or girl should go, or the calling that he should enter on leaving a school that has given him only general preparation. It is in this field that vocational direction will be most necessary.

To secure information that is accurate is comparatively easy, but to give advice that is wise with reference to selecting a life calling is most difficult. He who gives advice must know not only the relative advantages of the different trades, businesses, and professions, but also the specific requirements for success in each. To determine what callings give greatest financial returns and to advise all pupils to seek those callings would be to ignore the element that will make advice valuable, namely, the careful consideration of the tastes, tendencies, and abilities of the pupils, in order that each pupil may be advised to select a calling in which the requirements for success are such that he may have reasonable expectation of meeting them. The vocational adviser must know business, to be sure, but he has much greater need to know boys.

It is evident that a vast amount of scientific investigation must be made before any form of vocational advice can have any substantial and reliable scientific foundation. Outside of such elements as courtesy, tact, perseverance, courage, honesty, and the like, the factors that are really essential in any single business are as yet undetermined. The extent to which success in each calling depends upon the strength or accuracy of muscular reaction, upon the pertinacity and rapidity of mental associations, or upon any one of a dozen other lines of mental and motor activity, still waits solution in the laboratory of the experi-

mental psychologist. More difficult still is the determination of the exact qualifications of each particular boy; impossible, in fact, under any system of investigation that now exists or is likely to exist under conditions that will be readily applicable to thousands of children annually. When to these difficulties is added that of determining now with a boy in the adolescent period of rapid and turbulent change what will be his dominant, permanent characteristics when he has reached manhood, it becomes clear that even under the most careful guidance, the giving of vocational advice must still remain in the realm of the uncertain and problematical.

To give advice as to selection of a life work must remain for the most part an appreciative art rather than an exact science. It will depend upon those attitudes of mind that are appreciative and interpretative, rather than upon those which are analytical and scientific. Both the parent and the expert vocational adviser are likely to be in error; the parent because he is too near the life of the boy, knows him too intimately, loves him too well, and is too strongly prejudiced in his favor and too prone to exaggerate both his minor faults and his minor virtues, to enable him to judge with all wisdom as to the present condition or future promise of his child; the psychological expert because he is too far from the child, too unacquainted with his attitudes of mind, his reactions under the stress and irritations of life conditions, too remote to receive the shy confidences of a fleeting moment when the child lifts but for a second the veil that covers many latent possibilities. Between the parent and the expert adviser, however, is the teacher, who possesses or should possess some of the characteristics of each. I do not mean that there is little use for expert vocational advice, but merely to emphasize that its greatest work must be done by utilizing as its agents those who now furnish, and who will continue to furnish, ideals, incentives, and directions to a majority of all the pupils in school.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND PUBLIC EDUCATION

PAUL H. HANUS
Harvard University

At the First National Conference on Vocational Guidance held in Boston under the joint auspices of the Boston Vocation Bureau and the Boston Chamber of Commerce on November 15 and 16, 1910, several hundred persons were in attendance. Forty-five cities sent delegates, including cities as widely separated as New York, Baltimore, Pittsburg, Chicago, and Grand Rapids. It is apparent that the problems of systematic vocational guidance are attracting the attention their importance deserves.

These problems are, of course, not new. But organization for systematic attention to them is very recent. It has been stimulated by and is naturally associated with three important contemporary tendencies in public education. These tendencies are really only different phases of one comprehensive movement for approximating more closely our democratic ideal of individual welfare and social progress. They are: the safeguarding and promotion of bodily health and vigor, by an important extension of the work of the departments of school hygiene and physical training in our schools; the progressive establishment of public vocational schools of elementary and secondary grade, that is, of vocational schools other than professional schools, for increasing the efficiency of all who work in industry, agriculture, or commerce; and a widespread effort to make the non-vocational schools we already have, of every grade and kind, more vital—that is, to make the pupil's school life so significant a part of his whole life that it shall be and remain a guiding force, no matter at what point his school life must close.

The increased attention to bodily health and strength in school is the natural concomitant of the awakened public interest in physical welfare not merely for its own sake but also as one

of our most important social resources. Quite apart from the misery ill-health or physical weakness usually entails, it is clear that economic efficiency depends on health; hence the boards of health, school physicians, school nurses, school meals for the needy, open-air schools, supervised play, and public playgrounds.

The establishment of elementary and secondary schools at public expense for the training of workers in our industries, on our farms, and in commerce is making decided progress. Throughout the country such schools are being discussed or are already actually established. Notably in New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, and in some of the western states, the state is lending its aid to the maintenance of such schools, and in each of these states public schools founded within the last five years are in operation; similar schools founded by philanthropic and other agencies have rendered important service for years past. Occasionally, also, some large industrial or commercial establishments have provided themselves with schools for the training of the workers they need. All such schools—schools of commerce, of industry, of agriculture, whether day schools, part-time schools, day or evening continuation schools—are a response to the demand for increasing economic efficiency, without which individual welfare and social progress are impossible.

The demand for public vocational schools would not have arisen if the existing public schools had supplied it. It was believed, and by some persons it is still believed, that satisfactory vocational training can be provided by the traditional public schools, although this possibility is widely questioned; and many experiments are now under way to test this question. These experiments will be watched with care, as the vocational schools will be. In the course of time we shall have had the experience we need to enable us to decide as to their intrinsic and relative value.

Such an examination of the aims and work of the traditional public schools is by no means new; it is in fact perennial; but the recent and contemporary interest in vocational education has reinforced it. Hence the third marked tendency in educational activity today—an effort to make the school a more effective

factor in shaping the pupil's career. While enabling him to appreciate the spiritual and the institutional (political) resources and problems of our age, it should also render him responsive to our economic resources and problems, and in particular bring home to him the importance and the dignity of *work* of all kinds as the foundation of all individual and social welfare.

This involves a reorganization of the subject-matter of instruction, of the teaching, and of the management of the pupils. Each study is to be seen by the pupil to be a bit of organized human experience, and his mastery of it is to result in the power to be an effective participator and not merely a spectator in the world's affairs. At the same time the management or discipline of the school is to make the pupil progressively responsive to his duties as well as to his privileges. At the outset he is completely dependent on his parents and teachers for moral insight and guidance, but as his insight into his privileges and responsibilities develops he must shape his conduct in harmony therewith, and do this more and more by his own volition. It is the special task of the school to insure this result by the wisest discipline it can devise—by incentives and deterrents that, so far as possible, are seen by the pupil to possess a progressive and a permanent value. In a word, the demand today is to make culture *dynamic*, not static—to make it not merely the valued possession of the individual, the means of promoting his bodily health and his intelligence, but also to shape his character, to make him a living force in the economic, political, and spiritual progress of the social whole of which he is a part—to enable him to do this, as has been said, not merely as “preparation for life” later on, but as life itself, so far as he can understand it; to make the school that part of the pupil's life at the time which makes all of it, then and thereafter, more significant and valuable.

This is the meaning of the contention that the work of the school shall be more vital, and of the effort to make it so. It is clear that with this tendency well established in the schools the question of vocational guidance is a pressing question. Where this tendency is not yet marked, vocational guidance is equally essential, for there the pupil is likely to be quite helpless when

he makes the transition from school to vocation—a momentous transition indeed. This transition cannot be safe unless the choice of the pupil's life-career is deliberate. Even then mistakes will be made, but we may expect that they will be small in number and importance as compared with the mistakes of random choice or mere "job-hunting."

A wise choice of a calling demands accessible opportunities of satisfactory preparation for it, adaptation of personality and capacity, and a knowledge of the conditions of employment and of the prospective rewards, material, spiritual, and social, of satisfactory work in it. These are problems of vocational guidance. How much depends on their satisfactory solution for each ambitious youth both for himself and for society, need not be dwelt upon. What we must deplore now is the absence of such guidance for the great majority of each generation, and the fact until quite recently we have been unconscious of our duty in this respect; or at least that we have not endeavored to equip ourselves satisfactorily to discharge that duty. It is the object of this paper to direct public attention to the need of vocational guidance for the oncoming generation, and to the duty of providing organized local plans for giving such guidance in as satisfactory a way as can be worked out.

Who the wisest vocation counselors may be, in the end, we cannot now say. Perhaps the parents, made conscious by their own vocational guidance in youth of its significance and importance, and more responsive to their whole duty to their children in this respect than most of them have been in the past; perhaps the employers of children and youth, also rendered more responsive to the permanent welfare of their employees than many of them now are, and knowing better than anyone else the advantages and the limitations of the employment they offer; perhaps the teachers, always solicitous for the future of their charges and rendered by some training for this work more competent to cope with the difficult problems of vocational guidance than most of them now feel themselves to be; perhaps a body of vocational counselors specially trained for the purpose—a body of men and women each of whom knows equally well the

children and youth whom they counsel and a group of employments open to them. But, whoever may be the wisest counselors in the end, it is clear that we cannot wait to make a beginning. There is too much at stake. Our present duty is plain, namely, to seek to give to all these prospective and present counselors—for they have been and they will continue to be vocational advisers—the best available equipment for their responsibilities. This is one of our most important tasks, and one of the most difficult.

From what has been said, it is clear that much preparation is needed by those on whom the duty of vocational guidance may fall. Information must be had of the young people themselves, their physical condition, their capacity, their ambitions, the opportunities and circumstances of their lives; similarly, information is needed about occupations, their advantages and disadvantages in view of the natural and acquired equipment for them possessed by their prospective workers, the kind of preparation required for them, and the extent and quality of the available preparation for a progressive career in them, and what success in them means. To gather this information and make it available for use will require time and effort. And to give satisfactory guidance by properly trained persons to the great body of young people whose life-work is now almost inevitably determined by chance will require an army of devoted workers.

Of course, preparation for the transition from school life to life-work must be gradual. That transition must be seen from afar by the pupil. Vocational guidance cannot be safely deferred until the pupil is on the threshold of the world's work. A satisfactory vocation must be a goal toward which his thoughts and ambitions have been directed during the entire period of his tutelage. But the school must not prematurely narrow the pupil's outlook or his educational opportunities.

Up to about fourteen years of age, by statute, in all progressive countries, all children must go to school. But when they are fourteen years old most of them must face the problem of *how to make a living*. For some time they have been asking, "What am I to be?" At this moment, general or incidental vocational information is no longer adequate. It is accordingly a

culminating period for specific vocational guidance. The counselor is not to tell the pupil now, or at any time, what vocation to enter. It is his duty to make sure that whatever vocation the pupil enters, he enters it deliberately, and with as full a knowledge of all that this step means as can be obtained. The counselor does not prescribe a vocation which the pupil takes. The pupil chooses his vocation after full consideration of all the factors and consequences of his choice. Nevertheless, the time for choice has come, and the issues must be met.

It is clear, by the way, that one important duty of all the advisers of youth is to bring home to all who can be brought to see it the enormous value of more education for every capable pupil, no matter when he leaves school—and no matter whether the chief purpose of the school he attends is to teach him how to live or how to make a living. One valuable result of satisfactory vocational counseling ought therefore to be to lengthen the period of education for all but the incurably dull or the permanently unambitious.

During the entire high-school period vocational insight and aims still require attention; but another culminating period for specific vocational guidance comes at the close of the pupil's secondary-school career, when all but a small percentage of those who remained in school four years after leaving the elementary school must begin to earn their living. Beyond the school, in the college, the need of vocational guidance is by no means at an end.

All this means that throughout his entire school career the pupil's vocational insight and vocational purposes should be progressively developed. Throughout his entire school career, as has been said, he should be led to seek an answer to the question, "What am I to be?" And about the time he must leave school he ought to have an answer to the questions, "How can I best realize my ambitions? What vocation ought I to choose?" Satisfactory answers to these questions are imperative. An ambitious and capable man or woman in the wrong occupation is a perversion of individual opportunity and an irreparable waste of social resources.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The fourth annual meeting of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education was held in Boston on the 17th, 18th, and 19th of November. This was preceded by the first National Conference on Vocational Guidance, called under the auspices of the Boston Vocation Bureau and the Boston Chamber of Commerce. The relation which exists between vocational guidance and vocational training is so intimate that these two conferences may very well be considered as one. Together they covered four and one-half days, with programs morning, afternoon, and evening.

THE BOSTON
CONFERENCES ON
INDUSTRIAL EDUCA-
TION AND
VOCATIONAL
GUIDANCE

The keynote of this conference was distinctly social. There was a marked contrast to the demand which was very commonly made five years ago—the demand, coupled with criticism of existing school systems, to save our American industries. There was the same request that we fit children for the industries, but that request was coupled with the demand that we so fit them that they may make a happy entry into the industry, that they may follow it with some hope of progress, under more healthful conditions, and with some chance for ultimate success. There was the same assertion that our present schools are not giving a sufficiently good education to the rank and file of workers, and the consequent demand that the school age be advanced to sixteen years. But coupled with that was the demand that the schools be made better, more varied in purpose, and appropriate for those whom we are proposing to retain longer in school. The criticisms of the schools might well be summed up in the statements made by President-emeritus Eliot of Harvard University. Our forefathers expected, he said, that this country would have neither the very rich nor the very poor, but of course we know that there has never been a time or place showing greater extremes of poverty and riches than are exhibited now in this country. It was expected, he said, that the public schools would interest the children, and would so equip them that they would be able to adapt themselves to any work which might present itself at the close of their school life; but he said that in both these respects we had been very much disappointed, and that we found large numbers of children emerging from the schools uninterested and unprepared. This, he said, was equally true of the elementary schools, the secondary schools, and the colleges.

Educators were reminded that the education which the schools furnished was only a fraction of the entire education of the human being, and were urged to recognize the relation of that part to the whole. It was also

CONTRAST
WITH EARLIER
POSITION

pointed out that the schools would be required to furnish a larger and larger part of the entire education for large numbers of our children.

Thus different speakers urged the giving of vocational vision early to the children. This vision of a career was not to be confined to the pro-

**SUGGESTED
ENLARGEMENT
OF THE FUNCTION
OF THE SCHOOLS**

fessional or commercial, but was to include as well the industrial. It was said that "vocational education gives the iron backbone of general education." It was urged also that

the schools give to those desiring it a real and thorough vocational education, including some participation in actual productive activity, and not simply for the most advanced, but for all classes of industry. It was pointed out that it was frequently necessary to turn out a finished and salable product in industrial schools. It was said that trade-order work was the best means of educating the pupil, because it illustrated the trade conditions and trade standards. That, of course, would apply particularly to the lower grades of industry. Another suggested modification of the schools was that some plan should be devised for giving vocational advice and of exercising vocational guidance.

The details of the plans for carrying out these different objects were discussed at some length. It was suggested that the work in the elementary

**ORGANIZATION
RECOMMENDED**

grades ought to be modified, especially for the so-called lag-guards and for "motor-minded" children; that differentiation should be possible somewhere in the upper elementary grades, and that optional vocational courses or schools should be established in which the vocational idea should be central and strongly predominant. The advantages of part-time co-operative schools were discussed and the plans of the Cincinnati, Fitchburg, and Beverly experiments were generally commended, except by organized labor, as excellent types to be followed. The development of the continuation-school idea was recommended. That is also a part-time co-operative scheme, but it begins with the employer, rather than with the school. The employer releases his employees for a certain number of hours each week, and the public school provides a suitable training for them during those hours. And finally the evening schools were discussed. It was pointed out that these should be a part of the public-school system, but should be for men and women already at work in the trades, and not primarily for children.

It was noticeable that there was great unanimity in the opinions expressed by men of widely different experiences as to the need and value of industrial

**NOTABLE
UNANIMITY OF
OPINION**

education. Manufacturers, workmen, social workers, business men, and educators took part in the discussion. It was stated that this specific and appropriate training was the need of the manufacturer and the merchant and the desire of the workman; it was the solution suggested by social workers, and it was found by educators to be the direct and logical result of the scientific study of education. From all these different sources was heard the testimony that there had been dis-

covered a cultural value in this vocational and industrial work which was wholly unexpected and unlooked for at the beginning. Whether it was a school superintendent speaking, or a manufacturer, or a social worker, the opinion advanced was the same. Wherever the specific aim of the experimental industrial work had been accomplished it had been attended by an increase in general intelligence and general interest that was most suggestive and encouraging. There was a remarkable agreement that work itself is educative.

Considerable attention was given to the discussion of the training of teachers for this work. It was said to be absolutely essential that teachers
TRAINING OF be trained on both sides, that they have both a vocational
TEACHERS and a professional training or experience of some kind. It was pointed out that at the present time there were few teachers who could succeed in these schools, and therefore that it was necessary to secure co-operation between individuals having different experiences. It was suggested that normal-school graduates who were interested in the cause of vocational education should equip themselves by gaining some trade experience. Some have already done this, by working in shops or stores for a longer or shorter period. It was also suggested that intelligent young workmen might be given short courses in the art of teaching, as workmen will certainly be called on to teach in the new industrial schools. It was pointed out that this whole plan was in keeping with American procedure: that we always develop our machinery before our men. Industrial schools will be built and equipped and we shall then expect to develop the men to conduct them.

Five sessions were given to the conference on vocational guidance. Reports were made of plans now in operation, and of others soon to be formulated, for giving this much-needed assistance to the youth of
VOCATIONAL the land. It was astonishing to note that all the way from
GUIDANCE the lowest grade of industrial school, such as the Manhattan Trade School, for instance, to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, it was agreed that the girl or the boy emerging from school needed vocational guidance.

The discussions seemed to fall into four general groups: First, those advocating the giving of *information about* vocations in general and about the opportunities for work in the immediate vicinity, and also about opportunities for receiving vocational education. This, of course, would include the giving of suitable work in the elementary schools in order to create vocational vision, without which advice is difficult. The second group related to the *placing* of children, the assistance of the young worker when he finally decides to make the transition from school to work. At this time he needs to be shown the advisability of taking a position which offers an opportunity for advancement, even though in the beginning it may not be so attractive as some other which pays a larger initial wage. The third group related to *guidance*, the sympathetic counseling of the worker subsequent to his entry

into his new work. This is a most trying time for many a boy and girl, and attention was called to the mutual responsibility of the parent, the employer, the teacher, and the vocational assistant.

A fourth group looked to the establishment of vocation bureaus. The function of these is to collect information about opportunities for boys and girls in the trades and stores, as well as possibilities for receiving vocational training, and to classify this information in such a way that it will be available for use in placing and guiding children in suitable positions, or possibly in withholding or even withdrawing them from undesirable occupations. The opinion was generally expressed that ultimately this function should be taken over by the public schools. The Boston schools, it was stated, have now at least one vocational adviser in each of the elementary and high schools.

The program of the National Society gave two sessions to the consideration of the demands and opportunities for girls in trades and stores and to the training of teachers for girls' trade schools. The discussions were confined almost entirely to the lower grades of women's work, industrial and commercial, the needle trades, and the department stores.

On Thursday evening there was a banquet at the Somerset, at which many addresses of an inspirational nature were given. Mr. Charles H. Winslow, of Washington, D.C., representative of the American Federation of Labor, made a careful and authoritative statement of the position of organized labor on the question. He deprecated private control of public instruction, which is possible in part-time co-operative schools, criticized short-term trade courses of any kind, and declared for complete and thorough training at public expense and under public guidance. This, he says, labor demands as a right, not asks as a privilege.

One session was devoted to the subject of apprenticeship and corporation schools. The speakers represented large corporations: the General Electric Company, the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company, the Solvay Process Company, and others. When we reflect on how much of our manufactured product is the result of machine work, we see that the making of machines is of great importance as an industry. The discussions of this session related almost wholly to that industry. The impression left by this conference was that the apprenticeship system is not dead, as we have so frequently heard, but that it is transformed to meet present-day conditions; but it was shown that these conditions are such that the apprenticeship system is practicable only for very large corporations.

A session was devoted to part-time and evening schools. One of the most notable addresses of the conference was that of Superintendent Frank B. Dyer on "The Public Schools and the Apprentices of Cincinnati." He gave interesting details of the continuation schools for machinists' apprentices established under the new Ohio law. This statute is the first enacted

PROGRAM OF THE
NATIONAL
SOCIETY

in this country for the compulsory continued training in day schools of children who have entered gainful occupations. Mr. Dyer said, "The apprentice is a day-school proposition," and this voiced the sentiment of most of those who spoke at the session.

On Thursday evening Dr. Georg Kerschensteiner, superintendent of schools, Munich, gave an illustrated lecture on "Continuation Schools of Germany." His address demonstrated the value of co-operation between the school authorities and the employers. Dr. Kerschensteiner dwelt on the efficacy of "joy in work." This he believes to be possible only when the workman is thoroughly and broadly trained.

At the last session the topic was "The Social Meaning of Industrial Education." Mr. James P. Munroe, treasurer of the Monroe Felt and Paper Company of Boston, who was subsequently elected president of the society, was chairman of the meeting. He predicted the rapid advance of industrial education in the United States during the next forty years, and maintained that the immediate industrial effect on the individual was of small consequence compared with the ultimate social result of the movement. The most notable address of this session, and in fact of the whole conference, was given by Mr. Howell Cheney, of Cheney Brothers, South Manchester, Connecticut, on "The Problem of Industrial Education as Seen by the Employer." Mr. Cheney is a large manufacturer, has been a member of the State Board of Education and of the local school committee, and is interested in the Consumers' League of Connecticut. He is deeply and unselfishly interested in matters of education. He emphasized the necessity of training the two-thirds who would not be touched by the plans commonly proposed for vocational education. He discussed the question as to whether low-grade industrial work might be made educative. He called attention to the fact that each machine process was the development of a hand process, and expressed the belief that the employment of intricate machinery and the production of the finest quality of goods might, under favorable conditions, make factory work relatively desirable. In this connection he spoke at length of the responsibility of the consumer. He was inclined to believe that little would be gained by arbitrarily advancing the compulsory school age without changing the form of school work, and assigned as the cause of lack of progress in boys and girls when first entering industrial life, the totally unrelated nature of the work that had gone before.

There seemed to be a decided shifting of emphasis on several important points. The demand was not so strong for the preservation of American industries as for the salvation of the industrial workers. The call was not so much to fit the children for the industries as to fit them to cope with unfortunate or unfavorable industrial conditions. It was suggested also that the industries ought to be fitted to the young industrial worker. Instead of the complaint that vocational training is narrow and un-American, a statement which was frequently heard five

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years ago, it was pointed out that such training really makes for a broader education, that it is in fact the only possible democratic education for our country and our times. Where formerly we had been advised to postpone the selection or thought of a vocation to the latest possible moment in a pupil's life, we were counseled to provide something of vocational vision or purpose as early as might be, and were reminded of the power of the motive of a life career. And perhaps the most important of all was the change from the suggestion that we investigate the industrial schools of Germany to the demand that we study our own conditions and experiment at once with a great variety of modifications of our school systems. It was pointed out that industrial education is a supplement to, and not a substitute for, our older forms of education, and that it needs the immediate and hearty co-operation of all.

FRANK M. LEAVITT

The article on "Qualitative Elimination from High Schools" by Mr. Johnson, which appeared in the December number of the *School Review*, furnishes a suitable opportunity for acknowledging the co-operation of the school authorities of Chicago in a number of scientific investigations which would never have been possible on any large scale if the school records of Chicago had not been opened to examination. The superintendent and principals of this system have been very hospitable in entertaining propositions for study of their records. They recognize, as do all serious students of school problems, the importance of getting out of records the information which lies buried from view. It is hoped that their example may stimulate other school authorities to bring out in systematic form similar studies, so that a body of comparative material may be created. The students of education are dependent for their concrete material upon practical workers. The Department of Education at the University of Chicago is under great obligations to the city school system in the midst of which it is located.

C. H. J.

BOOK REVIEWS

Some Present Aspects of the Work of Teachers' Voluntary Associations in the United States. By CARTER ALEXANDER. New York: Teachers College, 1910. Pp. vii+109.

It is much easier to study those forms of organization which are fixed to a considerable extent by law than those which have more opportunity for variation. One can get at the instinctive or habitual elements in a situation more readily than those in which impulse plays a greater part. The present study of teachers' voluntary associations is timely in that agitation within our national organization promises to bring about more expert attention to its affairs by both conservatives and radicals.

Dr. Alexander has made the following divisions of his subject: differentiation and specialization, work in legislation, work for economic betterment, and the place of women in the associations.

He shows the significance of voluntary organizations in a democratic society. In America "the vast majority of all bills originate in the counsels of voluntary associations and are introduced in legislatures . . . at the instigation of associations whose agents watch them through every stage of their progress to final enactment or rejection. But when we contrast such theoretical possibility with the actual attempts and accomplishments of teachers' associations in this field, there is a great discrepancy which needs to be accounted for."

It is interesting to notice how little evidence there is of any considerable contribution to the social problems of schools by the many able men who have been prominent in private schools. Their efforts seem to have been largely individualistic.

Sections composed of high-school teachers are more frequent in state associations than any others, except those for superintendents and principals. They are found in three-fourths of the associations:

Women are found to be much more active and prominent in local associations than in those of more general scope.

The historical movement is traced through the differentiation tendencies and the counter tendency toward federation.

Possibly the most interesting sections are those pertaining to the relation of the associations to the problems of the standard of living and the place of women in a democratic society. We are making history in both these lines very rapidly at present, and a direct study of the situation as it now stands by both the leaders and the general membership will be a great means of reducing waste in the work done by associations.

One need that this report shows is that of more adequate records of teachers' organizations of all kinds. A society ought to take itself with sufficient seriousness to preserve the markings of its own trail.

FRANK A. MANNY

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN

Education in Sexual Physiology and Hygiene. A Physician's Message. By PHILIP ZENNER. Cincinnati. The Robert Clarke Co., 1910. Pp. vii+126. \$1.00 net.

There is evidence of a growing and intelligent interest in the subject of sex instruction. Like other reform movements, this one began with the abnormal, and sought to gain its end by emphasis upon horrors. A more constructive policy is establishing itself, and the majority of teachers seem ready to act as soon as experimentation has worked out usable machinery. The literature of the subject is increasing rapidly. There is more material available in French and German than in English. A recent publication in German contained one hundred and fifty titles in one section.

Dr. Zenner tells of an experiment made in a Cincinnati school with children from twelve to sixteen years of age. A woman physician talked over hygiene problems with the girls and led up through other topics to those of alcohol and sex hygiene. The result led Dr. Zenner to do a similar work with the boys. His talks are given in this volume, as are also others delivered before the college boys. There are special chapters on "Prevention of Social Disease," "Teaching Sexual Physiology and Hygiene in School," and "Mode of Teaching."

There is still a remarkable lack of information about these social problems on the part of teachers. This little book will serve to correct this state of affairs, but will have even more value as an account of an honest attempt to make progress in a difficult field.

FRANK A. MANNY

WESTERN STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN

Second-Year Mathematics for Secondary Schools. By GEORGE WILLIAM MYERS AND WILLIAM R. WICKES, ERNST R. BRESLICH, ERNEST A. WREIDT, AND ARNOLD DRESDEN, assisted by ERNEST L. CALDWELL AND ROBERT M. MATHEWS. (School of Education Manuals: Secondary Texts.) Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1910. Pp. xiv+282. \$1.50.

To give two years' work in combined algebra and geometry has been the purpose of the authors in planning the curriculum of the University High School. The present volume emphasizes geometry, while the *First-Year Mathematics* lays the stress on algebra. These two books are evidence of the dominance of the movement for improvement in the teaching of secondary mathematics, and they will be influential factors in the development of a rational unification of mathematics.

The second-year book begins with some constructive geometry which serves to give methods of constructing figures for the proofs of theorems. From the first algebraic notation is employed and the equation is used continually in proof and problem. This gives the desired opportunity of reviewing the algebra covered during the first year and of developing other algebraic topics, such as the completion of methods of solving quadratic equations, a discussion of the roots of quadratic equations, and the use of inequalities in the solution of indeterminate equations. It is interesting to see how closely the algebraic work is

connected with the geometrical truths as they are established, and also to see how the algebraic notation leads to concise proofs.

Among the noticeable features of this textbook are the following: constructive problems to open up the subject; the large number of exercises; the use of the principles of congruency; many proofs given in outline, or left entirely to the pupil; early use of circles; early use of ratio and proportion; the simple treatment of incommensurables and limits; the properties of proportion developed by means of exercises; applications of similar triangles; trigonometric ratios, and their use in solving right triangles; similarity and proportionality in circles; solution of quadratic equations; inequality in triangles and circles brought together in one chapter; new methods in the treatment of areas of polygons; use of the graph; degree of rigor suited to the ability of high-school pupils.

Though the present volume and the revised edition of the *First-Year Mathematics* mark a great advance in secondary textbooks, it would seem that they could be used in any school where the teachers are interested in making their work more efficient.

Practical Curve Tracing. By R. HOWARD DUNCAN. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1910. Pp. vi+133. \$1.60.

Some ten years ago the graph began to appear in the algebraic work of the secondary schools. It was introduced and used solely to represent equations in two variables, to solve simultaneous and quadratic equations, and to discuss their roots. Soon this one use of the graph was over-developed and there was a protest on the part of some teachers against the use of squared paper. But the teacher who has discovered the efficiency of squared paper in picturing tables of values, in solving problems, and in representing the results of experiments and deducing formulas to express these results, will see to it that his pupils learn to use this powerful instrument.

The present volume aims to present in an orderly manner the methods of curve-plotting and at the same time to make the student familiar with the properties of the chief families of curves. Much attention is given to methods of plotting curves quickly and accurately and to a discussion of the properties and characteristics of the curves themselves. Nevertheless, the practical side is not overlooked; many problems are solved in full, and a list of one hundred and twenty-five problems from the field of physics and engineering gives the student practice in applying the principles of curve-plotting.

The topics considered are: curve plotting from given data and from an equation; the straight line; the parabolic family; the hyperbolic family; the exponential family; the logarithmic family; the sine curve; the graphical solution of equations; the slope of a curve—differentiation; the area of a curve—integration. There are a large number of carefully-drawn diagrams accompanied by clear and detailed explanations.

The study of this book might well replace some of the purely academic mathematics of the first year in colleges and engineering schools. It is a valuable reference book for secondary-school teachers, and should be in every high-school library.

H. E. COBB

LEWIS INSTITUTE
CHICAGO

Das deutsche Unterrichtswesen der Gegenwart. By KARL KNABE. (Aus Natur und Geisteswelt.) Leipzig: Teubner, 1910. Pp. ii+108. M. 1.25.

This is without doubt the best short treatment of modern education in Germany. The book does not deal alone with the public and secondary schools and the universities but considers also the vocation, trade, and agricultural schools. Numerous tables show the courses of study, the number of pupils in the classes, and the attendance in the different schools.

Beginning German. A Series of Lessons with an Abstract of Grammar. By H. C. BIERWIRTH. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1909. Pp. 300. \$0.90.

This book does not make any attempt to follow in the footsteps of the reformers, but presents the essentials of the German grammar in a simple and logical way. The vocabulary chosen is excellent, the abstract of the grammar admirable.

Exercises in German Syntax and Composition for Advanced Students. By MARION P. WHITNEY AND LILIAN L. STROEBE. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1910. Pp. ix+194.

This book contains three parts: (1) exercises in German syntax (2) selections for translation from English into German (3) suggestions for themes based on classical German texts. The first part, which is the most valuable, gives passages from some German writers upon which the English exercises are based. The exercises are graded and are chosen for the reviewing of distinct syntactical rules. The subject-matter of the second part is selected for the purpose of giving advanced students the vocabulary necessary for the study of literature and literary criticism. The selections are taken mostly from the English prefaces of German classics.

Easy German Stories. By C. E. RIES. Edited by ERNEST B. BIERMANN. New York: American Book Co., 1910. Pp. 183. \$0.35.

The book contains eight short fanciful stories, for early and easy reading, which have never before been edited for school use and which may be recommended. Questions and exercises based upon the text have been added.

Easy German Stories. By HEDWIG LEVI. Edited with Notes and Vocabulary by LUISE DELP. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. 100. \$0.40.

The stories are easily and well told, and might be used in the seventh and eighth grades. The grammatical and syntactical notes are by far too difficult for such simple reading.

Deutsche Gedichte zum Auswendiglernen. Selected by W. P. CHALMERS. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. 138. \$0.40.

The book is divided into four parts according to the difficulties of the poems. These are well selected and arranged, but the value of the volume is lessened by the lack of a vocabulary.

Dornröschen. Ein Märchenspiel in vier Scenen. Von EMMA FISCHER. Pp. 31. \$0.25.

Das Rothkäppchen. Spiel in fünf Scenen. Von MATHILDE REICHENBACH.
Pp. 27. \$0.25. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Neither vocabulary nor notes are given with these plays, the intention being to treat them as exercises in pronunciation and German conversation. The first of the plays is far too difficult for young students. The second is easier and better arranged.

German Prose Composition. By CARL W. F. OSTHAUS AND ERNEST H. BIERMANN. New York: American Book Co., 1909. Pp. 191. \$0.65.

This volume is intended for the second and third years in college and the third and fourth years in secondary schools. It consists of three parts, an elementary, an intermediate, and an advanced, and a brief digest of syntax. A portion of the exercises in the elementary part contain three sections—a German section, a set of questions in German, and an English paraphrase of the preceding German section for translation. The other parts contain only English. After about twenty pages dealing with anecdotes, the book takes up continuous narrative. The principal subjects included are Balder's death, the legend of St. Christopher, the legend of Gudrun, Robinson Crusoe, some German poets, and the German universities. It is to be regretted that the authors did not pursue throughout the method which they employed on the first twenty-six pages. If they had the book might have been of considerable value. As it is it may be of use to those who believe in translation from difficult English into German, which to my mind is an exercise only to be demanded of those who have mastered the language.

HANS E. GRONOW

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The Industrial History of the United States. By KATHARINE COMAN.
New York: Macmillan, 1910. Pp. xvii+461. \$1.50 net.

This edition consists of xvii+461 pages as compared with xiii+343+xxiv in the previous edition. The additional space is taken up in the first place by the use of a more desirable type, but for the most part it is devoted to new material. The most important additions are a final chapter on conservation, taking 38 pages, and a chapter on territorial expansion and the revenue tariffs, containing a new arrangement of old material and new discussions on such questions as speculation, internal improvements, annexation, etc. Aside from these additions, the text of the book stands practically as before, although there have been a few insertions of paragraphs and some slight change in phraseology. Another feature in the new edition is that the illustrations, although somewhat fewer, are better selected. A great many of a purely picturesque character have been dropped, and their place is taken by those of more serious interest. The maps have been thoroughly gone over and a great deal of material added to them. On the whole, one can give the name revision to this edition, and it seems to be a decided improvement on the first. It is indeed an admirable piece of work, and alone in its field.

CARL RUSSELL FISH

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

BOOKS RECEIVED

EDUCATION

- A History of Education in the United States since the Civil War.* By CHARLES FRANKLIN THWING. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910. Pp. vi+348. \$1.25.
- A Text-Book in the Principles of Education.* By ERNEST NORTON HENDERSON. New York: Macmillan, 1910. Pp. xv+593. \$1.75 net.
- Twenty Years at Hull House. With Autobiographical Notes.* By JANE ADDAMS. With illustrations by NORAH HAMILTON. New York: Macmillan, 1910. Pp. xvii+462. \$2.50.
- The Dawn of Character. A Study of Child Life.* By EDITH E. READ MUMFORD. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1910. Pp. xi+225. \$1.20 net.
- Child Problems.* By GEORGE B. MANGOLD. New York: Macmillan, 1910. Pp. xv+381. \$1.25.

ENGLISH

- A First Book in English Literature.* By HENRY S. PANCOAST AND PERCY VAN DYKE SHELLY. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1910. Pp. xix+497. Illustrated. \$1.15.
- Plutarch's Cimon and Pericles. With the Funeral Oration of Pericles* (THUCYDIDES ii. 35-46). Newly Translated, with Introduction and Notes, by BERNADOTTE PERRIN. New York: Scribner, 1910. Pp. xiv+287. With frontispiece. \$2.00.
- Shakespeare's A Midsummer Night's Dream.* With Introduction and Notes by HENRY NORMAN HUDSON. Edited and Revised by EBENEZER CHARLTON BLACK, with the co-operation of MOSES GRANT DANIELL. School ed. (The New Hudson Shakespeare.) Boston: Ginn & Co., 1910. Pp. lxxiii+114. \$0.50.

LATIN

- Writing Latin. Book One—Second Year Work.* By JOHN EDMUND BARSS. Revised Edition, Based on LODGE'S *Vocabulary of High-School Latin*. (Gildersleeve-Lodge Latin Series.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1910. Pp. viii+136.
- P. Terenti Afri Haulton Timorumenos.* Edited with Introduction and Notes by F. G. BALLENTINE. (The Students' Series of Latin Classics.) Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1910. Pp. xxi+129.

GERMAN, FRENCH, AND SPANISH

- Handbook of German Idioms.* By M. B. LAMBERT. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1910. Pp. iii+100. \$0.40.
- Ernstes und Heiteres.* Tales by Modern German Writers. Edited for school use by JOSEFA SCHRAKAMP. New York: American Book Co., 1910. Pp. 202. \$0.35.
- Der Dummkopf.* Lustspiel in fünf Aufzügen. By LUDWIG FULDA. Edited with Introduction and Notes by W. K. STEWART. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1910. Pp. vii+179. \$0.35.
- Siepmann's Elementary German Series. General Editor, OTTO SIEPMANN. *Rübezahl.* Von FERDINAND GOEBEL. Edited by D. B. HURLEY. Authorized Edi-

- tion. Pp. xi+173. *Friedrich der Grosse und Der siebenjährige Krieg*. Von FERDINAND SCHRADER. Adapted and Edited by R. H. ALLPRESS. Authorized Edition. Pp. x+161. *Vom ersten bis zum letzten Schuss. Kriegserinnerungen, 1870-71*. Von HANS WACHENHUSEN. Edited by T. H. BAYLEY. Authorized Edition. Pp. ix+169. With maps. *Wilhelm der Siegreiche. Ein Kaiser und Heldenbild aus der Neuzeit*. Der deutschen Jugend gewidmet. Von KARL ZASTROW. Edited by E. P. ASH. Authorized Edition. Pp. xii+192. New York: Macmillan, 1910. \$0.35 each.
- Siepmann's Elementary French Series. General Editors, OTTO SIEPMANN and EUGÈNE PELLISSIER. *Monsieur Pinson*. Par LUCIEN BIART. Adapted and Edited by OTTO SIEPMANN. Authorized Edition. Pp. viii+147. *La tour des Maures*. Par ERNEST DAUDET. Adapted and Edited by A. H. WALL. Authorized Edition. Pp. x+134. *Voyage du novice Jean-Paul à travers la France d'Amérique*. Par GEORGE LAMY. Adapted and Edited by D. DEVAUX. Authorized Edition. Pp. ix+148. *Une année de collège à Paris*. Par ANDRÉ LAURIE. Adapted and Edited by FABIAN WARE. Notes and Vocabulary by C. H. BRERETON. Authorized Edition. Pp. viii+168. New York: Macmillan, 1910. \$0.35 each.
- Siepmann's Classical French Texts. General Editors, OTTO SIEPMANN and EUGÈNE PELLISSIER. *Nicomède*. Tragédie par PIERRE CORNEILLE. Edited by G. H. CLARKE. Pp. xxxiii+177. *Le jeu de l'amour et du hazard*. Par MARIVAUX. Edited by EUGÈNE PELLISSIER. Pp. xii+131. *Pensées, maximes et réflexions de Pascal, La Rochefoucauld, Vauvenargues*. Edited by ALFRED T. BAKER. Pp. xvi+132. New York: Macmillan, 1910. \$0.35 each.
- Siepmann's Advanced French Series. General Editors, OTTO SIEPMANN and EUGÈNE PELLISSIER. *L'anneau d'argent*. Par CHARLES DE BERNARD. Edited by LOUIS SERS. Pp. x+159. *Un saint*. Par PAUL BOURGET. Edited by CLAUDESLEY BRERETON. Authorized Edition. Pp. xi+116. *Contes choisis*. Par FRANÇOIS COPPÉE. Edited by MARGARET F. SKEAT. Authorized Edition. Pp. xiv+176. *Jack*. Par ALPHONSE DAUDET. Part I. *Le gymnase Moronval*, etc. Adapted and Edited by EDWARD C. GOLDBERG. Pp. xi+164. *Lettres de mon moulin*. Par ALPHONSE DAUDET. Selected and Edited by G. H. CLARKE. Authorized Edition. Pp. xvii+139. *Sacs et parchemins*. Par JULES SANDEAU. Adapted and Edited by EUGÈNE PELLISSIER. Pp. x+257. New York: Macmillan, 1910. \$0.35 each.
- Easy Standard French*. Edited with English Exercises, Notes, and Vocabulary by VICTOR E. FRANÇOIS. New York: American Book Co., 1910. Pp. 171. \$0.40.
- Historical French Reader*. With Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary. By FÉLIX WEILL. New York: American Book Co., 1910. Pp. 163. Illustrated. \$0.40.
- Joan of Arc*. French Composition. With Notes and Vocabulary by H. A. GUERBER. New York: American Book Co., 1910. Pp. 102. \$0.30.
- Spanish Grammar*. By CHARLES WAGNER. Revised Edition. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Printed for the Author. George Wahr, Agent. Pp. x+197. \$1.25.

POLITICAL SCIENCE AND COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY

- Introduction to Political Science*. By RAYMOND GARFIELD GETTELL. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1910. Pp. xx+421. \$2.00.
- Commercial Geography*. By EDWARD VAN DYKE ROBINSON. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1910. Pp. 455+xlvi. Illustrated.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, The University of Chicago.

- AGATHON. The changed spirit of the Sorbonne. *Educa. R.* 40:387-96.
(N. '10.)
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¹ *Abbreviations.*—*Amer. Phys. Educa. Rev.*, American Physical Education Review; *Atlant.*, Atlantic Monthly; *Educa.*, Education; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *Journ. of Educa.*, Journal of Education; *Journ. of Educa. Psychol.*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *Kind. R.*, Kindergarten Review; *Lit. D.*, Literary Digest; *Pop. Educator*, Popular Educator; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Primary Educa.*, Primary Education; *Psychol. Clinic*, Psychological Clinic; *R. of Rs.*, Review of Reviews; *School W.*, School World.

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